The Education Digest

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Second-class mail privileges authorized at Ann Arbor. Michigan, and additional entry authorized at Oxford, Indiana. Printed in the United States of America. The annual index is included in the May issue. The contents of THE EDUCATION DIGEST are listed in the *Education Index*. Advertising Sales Offices: Eastern—Macintyre-Simpson & Woods, 101 Park Avenue, New York 17, N. Y., Lexington 2-0020. Mid-West—Prakken Publications, 53 West Jackson Blvd., Suite 760, Chicago 4, Ill., Harrison 7-9659. Western—Jess M. Laughlin Company, 3142 Wilshire Blvd., Los Angeles 5, Calif., Dunkirk 3-7697 and 465 California St., San Francisco 4, Calif., Exbrook 2-9050.

Subscription price, $5.00 a year; 2 years, $9.00; 3 years, $12.00 (Foreign, $5.50 a year); single copies, 60c. Published monthly, September through May, by THE EDUCATION DIGEST, 330 Thompson St., Ann Arbor, Mich.

25th Anniversary Year

THE EDUCATION DIGEST

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Volume XXV OCTOBER 1959 Number 2

Dramatic Developments in the Future

Education in Orbit

LINDLEY J. STILES

In The Nation's Schools

IMPLIED in this title—"Education in Orbit"—is the forboding thought that the future may find education, as at present, going in circles. On the other hand, if we are sufficiently creative and courageous educationally as we are now mechanically, education may be raised to its proper orbit of excellence required by the space age.

One conclusion is inescapable: The *status quo* of education, good as it has been, is already outmoded for the present and will be as obsolete for the future as the propelled airplane is for space travel. To place education in orbit, educational leaders must prepare for dramatic developments in school programs comparable to those in the fields of fission and satellite projection.

A look in the direction of the future reveals the nature of some changes that are imminent in education. Foremost, perhaps, are the significant trends that appear in the way of instructional procedures and the use of various aids and devices to extend superior teaching to more students.

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The future orbit of education *demands* excellence in teaching. This requirement may be expected to challenge all teachers. It will loom as a threat to many, particularly those who have taken their mission casually and who may still be using nineteenth century instructional procedures. In recent years, of course, thousands of high-school and college teachers have improved their presentations by the use of audio-visual aids. Yet in the typical lecture section, the profes-

sor still stands before his students presenting without interruption his views, explanations, or interpretations, in a predetermined order and pace. And in the elementary schools, far too many teachers rely almost totally on traditional teaching procedures, ignoring the wide variety of films, slides, recordings, charts, maps, and other resources that might enliven and strengthen their pedagogy. The use of the master teacher made possible by the vehicle of television will not, of course, detract from the importance of *the role of the teacher in the classroom*. Rather, it becomes an added resource to assist teachers to improve the quality of the learning experiences.

Television instruction has the advantage of being able to bring students, wherever they are—in grade schools, in large or small colleges, on campus, or at home—the best teaching in the world. Because the television teacher can have help from a team of researchers in his field, a presentation can be made each year that is abreast of up-to-date content, taught in an interesting and stimulating manner.

TV offers the added advantage of the pictorial and diagrammatic analyses to explain the abstract, the intricate, the microscopic. With "flashbacks" and "you were there" techniques, TV instruction can make the student a part of the life of the tenth century or the colonial period, then take him into a meeting of the United Nations within a matter of seconds. It can whisk him into a scientific laboratory to view the delicate instruments which record the flight of a rocket, then take him aloft to observe the arc of the blast-off.

TEACHING ON TRIAL

Obviously, the availability of television teachings makes inexcusable a class period spent with an immature, unskilled, and uninspiring teacher. ETV places teaching everywhere on trial to prove that it has a role to play that cannot be done better for more students and less expensively via television. Educational television represents a break-through in the improvement of the quality of instruction that can be made available to learners. It builds, on the solid foundation already laid by the A-V developments of the last 30 years, a *multi-dimensional approach* to the presentation aspects of teaching: sound, picture, action, distance, repetition, time.

How may A-V aids and automation be used to a maximum to extend universal education, improve quality, and keep it all within the range of financial resources? Many possibilities can be visualized as we look for the orbit of education in the future. One change, surely, when ETV comes into common use, will be the development of instructional teams to facilitate the maximum utilization of the talents of school personnel. At the *national* level such instructional teams would produce lessons for selected school and college courses. Such

teams might include: (1) the television teacher, the best in the world, who might command a salary comparable to the income of syndicated columnists or the Hollywood actor; (2) subject-matter specialists and curriculum experts; (3) audio-visual and television technicians; and (4) the course director.

Such teams might be located in various centers of learning in accordance with the resources and research available, or possibly a Hollywood-type of education will be developed where all courses will be telefilmed. Use of such telefilms would, of course, be optional with local schools, which would be free to supplement the instruction with their own resources and emphasis.

At the *institutional* level, the instructional team to supplement the national TV course would vary with the number of students enrolled. The jobs to be done might suggest the following personnel as needed: (1) *Teacher-Consultant*—a competent and experienced teacher to consult with students individually and hold group-help sessions, supervise the preparation of examinations, and be responsible for the course. Salaries could exceed those now paid to professors and teachers in the highest brackets. (2) *Correspondence-Consultant*—an individual to supervise the enrollees who take the course by television - correspondence. Salary comparable to the teacher-consultant. (3) *Teacher-Interns*—prospective teachers who are in training for teaching. They would assist with help sessions, tutor individual students, administer and grade papers and examinations, including those from correspondence courses. (4) *Teacher-Secretary*—a semiprofessional person who would keep the records, arrange for the use of teletapes for student review, take charge of details.

OTHER IDEAS

Such changes in instructional and educational practices seem visionary only if one's eyes are not directed toward the future. Were we to join with Maurice B. Mitchell, president of Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc., in dreaming about the impact of the magic developments in the fields of communications on education, even such practices would appear already out of date.

Mr. Mitchell visualizes in each home a "communicenter" which could utilize the full potentialities of two-way high-speed television, remote control, automation, magnetic tape, facsimile printers, and electronic brains to place members of the family in immediate touch, by sound, picture, and printed word, with any phase of community life.

When such developments become a reality, a press of a button could bring to the child at home complete instruction in his school work. Electronic brains could instruct, answer questions, administer and score examinations while

high-speed two-way TV cameras attached to other machines could bring the teacher into the home to observe and supervise the student at study. A touch of another button could make available in a central library a microfilmed copy of all books, transcriptions of recordings and telefilms. A turn of a dial could bring a lecture or a two-way visualized discussion with the teacher or someone in the community who might help with a technical point. A wrist-watch-sized gadget could carry drill exercises with the student when he was out to play.

The basic scientific discoveries that will make possible such radical changes have already been made. If we can control a satellite on its journey around the moon, send it messages, and receive its detailed reports on conditions beyond the atmosphere of the earth, certainly the same electronic powers can be employed to help set our program of education in orbit.

This type of dreaming about the future orbit of education compels us to reflect on the implications such developments hold for the traditional requirements of education. If the home is again to become a place for systematic learning, what kind of school buildings and equipment will be needed? What will happen to the length of the learning day, week, and year? Will not adult education become more extensive and important than ever before? Will not more careful decisions have to be made about the basic subjects and skills that students must master? What implications do such developments hold for teacher education? Will not the roles of the various members of the instructional teams need to be carefully defined?

Americans are challenged today to apply their brain power, research competence, and creative genius to strengthen education. In terms of national security and freedom, as well as continued progress on all fronts, we have no time to lose. The goal can be achieved only if we are willing to face difficult educational questions, to admit existing weaknesses, to apply new ideas and different formulas in efforts to find the bedrock of curricular content for maximum intellectual development and to design more efficient educational procedures and patterns.

The path of the future orbit of education is already beginning to be reflected in the experimental efforts of schools and colleges which dare to challenge the old and try the new. Furthermore, the markers of the course that schools must take are crystal clear. They are: universal education and excellence, with economy. Our need is for ideas, for new educational theories, and expanded basic and applied research and experimentation to reveal the truth that will guide our schools into orbit. The educational countdown for the future of our schools has started. It demands the total efforts and complete attention of all if the blast-off is to be successful. •

Is Public Opinion More Powerful than the Law?

Informal Controls on Public Education

In Educational Administration in a Changing Community

LIKE all social institutions, the public school is operated and altered by controls in the society of which it is a part. Many of these controls have taken on a highly structured and formal character and are strongly entrenched in law. Others are less structured, more informal, and often somewhat transitory. They are recognized largely through expressions of public opinion and community attitude.

It is unnecessary to say, at a given moment, whether the formal or informal controls are the more important and powerful. They interact, one on the other. Laws under which schools operate were enacted with the sanction of public opinion, and they remain operative only when supported by consensus of the community. Indeed, at times, public opinion, expressed through various community groups, may be more powerful in the operation of the school than the law itself.

It is the law which specifies how public schools are to be organized, administered, and financed. But they only set the framework within which action is required or permitted. The direct controls of law do not necessarily assure a well-administered school, good classroom instruction, or an over-all program which fills community needs.

Within the framework of the formal controls of law, the controls that really determine quality are the informal ones that develop from community attitudes and public opinion. It is these informal controls, with their variable human elements rather than the fixed legal controls, which determine in a large measure the climate, operation, and effectiveness of the public school.

Public opinion customarily has small beginnings. Public-opinion decisions leading to school progress may begin with the faint beatings of the public pulse in one of the most informal groups of the community. Likewise, opinion that may unseat a school board, discharge a superintendent, block a bond issue,

Reported from Educational Administration in a Changing Community, 37th Yearbook, 1959, of the American Association of School Administrators, Chapter IV, 69–94.

or alter a curriculum may have its beginning in one of the many small conversational gatherings that are common in all communities. With scarcely enough size or definiteness to merit the label of social structures, the amoebic clusters have vague forms, no expressed social purposes, no recognized responsibility, and no accountability. They are essentially conversation clusters which thrive on hearsay, gossip, and post-mortems on community affairs, including schools. Small though the clusters are, their potential for good or evil in terms of public-school programs and administration is large.

AMOEBIC SOCIAL CLUSTERS

The amoebic cluster is identified readily in the back-fence visit in the neighborhood, the 10 o'clock gatherings at the corner drugstore, the 3 o'clock coffee break at a friendly restaurant, and the beer pause at the tavern. In fact, when a handful of acquaintances gather, the climate is right for thought exchange and reaction which may grow and become public opinion and exercise a profound informal control over the school.

The degree to which amoebic social clusters exert influence varies from community to community. Probably the smaller the community, the more significant they are and the more attention they receive from the superintendent of schools. Everybody soon learns what has happened, or is reported to have happened, in a small town. There is more anonymity in the city. Nevertheless, no city is so large that it is free of the effects of the amoebic cluster.

School superintendents have various ways of relating to these social clusters in their communities. Some make it a point to become regular members of some of the gatherings. Some superintendents choose to be hail-fellows-well-met and exchange ribald stories with the best of them. These superintendents make it a point to be at the scene to pick up the first whisper of hope or despair for the school administration.

A number of administrators, perhaps imbued with "the new" in public relations, may be more creative. They go out to seek nuclei with the aim of nourishing the clusters so they may become effective in forming enlightened public opinion. Still other superintendents, with professional dignity, retire to the cloister of their offices and give attention to the pressing duties of the hour. They apparently choose to meet public opinion when it becomes more recognizable, mature, and demanding, as it does when it moves up the scale from the clusters to the more accepted and responsible social groups of the community.

Of the many organized community groups which exert informal controls on the schools, the most easily recognized are those whose pronounced objectives are education. Topping the list is the National Congress of Parents and

Teachers. School administrators generally see in this organization the first line of community support for the school. They have come to welcome the PTA for its genuine interest in securing the best schools for children. The organization gives the administrator his most attentive ear as he explains the school program or the necessity for increased budget, more school construction, higher standards for teachers, and changes in the school curriculum. The potential power of the Congress of Parents and Teachers, with its large membership and its program to shape public opinion and attitudes, is enormous.

With spectacular development in the last decade, citizens advisory committees have appeared throughout the nation. These committees have been given assistance by the National Citizens Council for Better Schools. A local citizens advisory committee, as the title suggests, is generally organized with at least school-board and administrative acquiescence. Customarily, the board of education or the superintendent of schools takes the initiative in the first steps of organization. It is the composition of this committee, the degree to which it represents various segments of the community, and its size and leadership that are highly important. Further, the planned life of the committee and its program for surveys, studies, and reports determine in large measure its potential for success.

Professional organization and vocational groups of a community are also influential. Such groups have educational interests they wish to promote. Physicians and dentists have suggestions on health programs, practices, and instruction in the school. The farmers, through their federation, union, and grange, seek to influence the school in many ways. Bankers promote school savings programs and the capitalistic system. Labor unions have their say in vocational education, citizenship, and labor relations. These and similar groups influence the schools for better or worse.

Churches of a community have an educational program for children and youth in the Sunday School. They also influence character education and instruction in moral and spiritual values in the public schools. The ministerial association may offer its criticisms or its suggestions regarding the school to the community or to the board of education.

PATRIOTIC ORGANIZATIONS

And every community has its patriotic organizations which wish for a love of country to be instilled in every child and would have their concepts of historical values taught in the schools. Chambers of Commerce, associations of manufacturers, retailers, realtors, and tax groups have their special school programs, too. They can present school reports and proposals with skill and extensive promotion. Sometimes their specific proposals are concerned with simplified

school offerings, retrenchment, and taxation that will fall lightly on business and industry. Their programs have strength not because they have the support of the many but because they carry the support of influential citizens in the business strata.

There are notable exceptions where enlightened local leaders, in an effort to build an improved community, recruit the active support of the local Chamber of Commerce for school progress. Some business groups have identified the investment potential of schools for the individual and the community, in which case a friendly association between business groups can mean advancement in education. Also, several of the civic organizations known as "service clubs" have school committees which customarily offer optimistic, positive school backing.

MASS MEDIA

The wide channels of community communication are its newspapers, radio, and television. But a journalist's concept of news, as well as his slanting of the story, may distort values. Mass media, whether press, radio, or television, can almost literally make or break a school system. Editors' cognizance of this power usually induces a sense of responsibility. And with improvements in school public relations have come better press relations. The reporter becomes essentially a member of the team and has rapport with the board of education, administration, teachers, and children.

Each of the communications media has its special field and advantage in school reporting. The newest medium, TV, opens a priceless avenue in school public relations that is only slightly developed in many communities. Well planned and skillfully executed television programs can assure a better understanding and reception of the school program by the community.

Public opinion exercises informal controls on the school that are too numerous for listing and almost too numerous for understanding. Divergent points of view and conflicting interests arise from community living, but somehow they merge and develop community attitudes. These are by nature nebulous and in a state of flux. This is well, for out of aroused interest and participation of the citizens come public schools which better meet the needs of all the children of all the people.

The formal controls of the law and the informal controls of community attitude are perpetually demanding as the superintendent of schools undertakes his important daily work. These controls have their inconsistencies. They pull in one direction and push in another. The superintendent of schools taxes his understanding, skill, professional preparation, and experience as he seeks to translate the wishes of the community into successful school administration. •

Some Suggestions for

Selecting a Successful Teacher

FRANKLYN S. BARRY

In The School Executive

As public pressure calls for an increased accent on quality in education, the role of the good teacher takes on new dimensions. The solution to the problem of securing a high level of education lies, for the most part, in the selection of able teachers. Fine buildings and capable administrators are important parts of the school program, but the source of superior education for America is to be found in the teacher. In the words of the Rockefeller Report, "No educational system can be better than its teachers."

What are the qualities essential to teacher competence? There are several fundamental prerequisites. A high degree of intelligence and a capacity for vigorous action are two which are probably inherent. A third basic quality, social consciousness, is the result of a complex of forces, including home, books, schooling, community, economic factors, and travel. Two other factors are expert knowledge of subject and professional fields and a capacity to get along with people—children and adults.

Superior intelligence in teachers is significant when one considers what the teacher is expected to accomplish. In addition to the teaching of subject matter, there are less tangible but equally important tasks requiring such components of intelligence as creative and relational thinking, and imagination. Much is heard about vanishing individualism and the growing cult of conformity. The less talented teacher is too often content to keep young minds plodding along paths geared to the average. The gifted teacher is usually a richly living, broadly informed person who will expose his students to intriguing new worlds.

The teacher with superior intelligence is quicker to recognize individual needs and capacities of students and to seize teaching opportunities as they arise. There may be but one "educable moment" in a given situation; if this moment is passed by, it may never come again.

Second to intelligence as a requirement for teaching is a capacity for sustained, vigorous action. Zeal, fervor, and intense interest in both subject matter and human beings are communicable from teacher to student. The zestful teacher brings to the teaching situation a

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sense of urgency and importance as well as a climate of action, Motivation is necessary for learning; the lively teacher, by his very example, insures an atmosphere of learning.

He works hard outside the classroom. He reads widely, studies in his own field, prepares units of work as well as daily lesson plans, plans presentations, assembles films, charts, and other supplementary classroom aids. He prepares examinations and corrects them, counsels students, and does clerical work. Extracurricular and community activities take much of his time and energy. All this requires good health and physical vigor coupled with the capacity for sustained action.

To a superior intellect and capacity to achieve must be added a third major quality, namely, social intelligence and a form of moral conscience. To fulfill the true role of American education in a shrinking world, the teacher must have a strong passion to understand and help its people. He must pass on to his students his desire to resolve the largest issues; he must be a champion of an education which will include the knowledge of what is needed and the desire to serve. He will demonstrate his faith in self-government, his recognition of the role of an enlightened citizenry, and his willingness to contribute to the institutions dedicated to the improvement of society. The personal traits of this teacher will include tolerance and respect for the dignity of all mankind. Awareness of the problems of poverty, segregation, labor relations, minorities, and related areas which might promote or block the welfare of groups marks the person possessing this quality. It is the task of the teacher with social conscience to transmit to his students an awareness of the problems involved in living with other groups—one aspect of responsible citizenship.

Depth of training in subject matter is certainly an important requirement for teaching in the rapidly changing world of today. Unless the teacher is well grounded in his subject matter, and has also kept his knowledge up to date, he cannot demand from his students the degree of achievement that is imperative.

SKILL IN TRANSMISSION

But depth and breadth of study may be wasted or at least ineffective if the teacher is not skilled in transmission of this knowledge to the child in the classroom. This process is highly complicated. In a 13-year period, the teacher is expected to develop each pupil to the maximum of his potential and to make him aware of his particular strengths and limitations. The aim of education is to make a functional being of each person who comes to school in order that he can compete successfully in a social and work world in later life.

The teaching skill to do all this must not be left to chance. Motivation of pupils may be achieved

by a variety of means and devices, but this requires know-how. The role of tests and testing in the learning process is vital, and the preparation and use of tests is a skill in itself. Training is required to detect the various levels of reading ability in any one group, and to adapt the teaching process to these abilities. Surely a teacher with knowledge of the learning process can be a more effective teacher than one with no knowledge of psychology.

QUALITY IS THE ISSUE

Indeed, there is no real question of the *need* for professional training. The *quality* of the teacher-training program is the issue. When institutions which prepare teachers will insist on rigorous and disciplined study in the professional phases of the teacher's training, there will be much less to criticize. Briefly, it must be subject matter training of depth *and* professional training of depth.

Certain personality traits are also needed to make even well-trained teachers effective. In general, these traits are best identified as an ability to get along with others and the possession of skills in human relationships. This would give rise to the growth of good classroom morale, an important factor in the whole teaching-learning situation. And if high morale is important to the learner, it is equally important to teacher. The teacher with an understanding of the factors contributing to staff morale will be a positive force in staff growth. He will look on his fellow teachers as able members of a team working with him toward common objectives. The esteem in which teachers hold their administrators is associated with the level of morale. Good teachers will become involved in certain areas of school management; these teachers will view professionally the role of administration and work with the administrator in all areas of common concern.

The superior teacher with an ability to work with others also contributes to better relations between parents and school, and between the school and the community. This teacher will see himself as an agent of better communications interpreting the purposes of education to the public, and securing reliable information in return on public attitudes toward the school.

These qualifications represent the ideal. It is a sad fact that today it cannot be achieved—often the mere willingness to teach must be sufficient for employment. The Educational Policies Commission emphasizes that if American schools are ever to be fully staffed with teachers who meet the best standards, the teaching profession must be strengthened; salaries, perquisites, and prestige must reach levels which will permit the schools to compete for excellence. The entire American society has a stake in creating the conditions under which this problem can be solved. •

How to Change Liabilities to Assets

Teaching the Upper 15 Percent

CHARLES E. BISH

In The Clearing House

IN school—or out of school—good minds must be challenged or they will rust. Today this is the focus of our concern. Conferences, projects, studies, research—all point toward closing the gap in the continuum of educational challenge and opportunity. Through these measures, attempts are being made to provide specially designed programs to enable the academically talented pupil to reach his maximum development *under and within the aegis of the public school.*

Unfortunately, research and program development take time. Meanwhile too little is being done. What can be done until systematic programs can be developed? This is the question that every teacher faces as he stands before the pupils assigned to his room. He will surely ask himself what he can do—on his own—for the talented pupils in his classes.

Since we have obligated ourselves to "meet the needs of the pupils," let us examine what have been referred to as "liabilities" and the "special needs" of these talented pupils, as they have been compiled from the many writings on the subject.

1. They learn easily and quickly. Therefore they have free time which they have difficulty in managing.

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2. Without the pressure to work, they develop poor study habits, and many do not learn the habit of sustained effort.

3. They dislike drill and repetition, even as much of it as they need.

4. When they are required to do tasks which they already understand, they often respond by disliking the teacher, the subject, the school, and even react negatively to the whole "formal process of learning."

5. They think faster than they can write, and they frequently turn in work of varying degrees of "sloppiness."

6. Because of their natural curiosity, alertness, and ability to do relational thinking, they often appear to teachers and classmates to be conceited or overaggressive.

7. They may become interested only in perfection, or bog down because goals are beyond present attainment.

8. They come to dislike their superior abilities because they do not

gain appropriate recognition or approval when they use them.

9. They do not understand their potential or capacity, nor do they perceive it in relation to social responsibility.

10. They may find it difficult to be tolerant of others or to be critical of self.

NEW OBJECTIVES

Cannot these liabilities be turned into assets? Can we not restate them in positive form, and arrive at a new set of objectives—specific, timely, and – admittedly – difficult. We must help the talented student to learn:

1. To manage his time so that it furthers his own growth and productivity.

2. To develop good study habits, including that of sustained effort.

3. To understand fully and, hence, accept drill and repetition to the point of acceptable proficiency in the skill involved.

4. To develop the ability to be able to evaluate his own progress in this process, so that he may become selfdirecting and selfappraising in skill development.

5. To develop a combination technique and standard of work which will enable the handling of characteristic rapid thought processes, but will, as part of the same operation, bring the fruits of this thinking to the polished form they (generally) deserve.

6. To develop an understanding of scholastic ability as one phase of the human being; its relationship to cultural nurture; and its responsibility to society of its owner regardless of its quantity or quality.

7. To develop an understanding of himself with respect to his ability, his culture, and his social responsibility.

8. To develop a means of expressing himself so that his natural alertness and curiosity do not antagonize either classmates or teachers.

9. To progress in the setting of realistic but increasingly difficult goals, with respect to (*a*) his own ability to accomplish them, and (*b*) their general soundness of purpose as measured by considerations of practicality and general utility.

10. To develop a pattern for relationships with others in which he may seek to understand them, and thus learn respect for their work, their ideas, their culture, and so on.

11. To increase in his ability to develop his own program of activities, academic and otherwise, on a worthwhile and balanced basis, thus engendering in him the understanding of the need for scope of study and a knowledge of the "real world"; i.e., study in a number of fields, not just that of his special interest.

12. To develop criterions for excellence and an objectivity of viewpoint with respect to himself and his work, which will make it possible for him to examine his motives, actions, and products critically in the light of these criterions, *and not be afraid to face the answers he finds.*

The accomplishment of these objectives is perhaps to some small extent taking place in all classrooms where good teaching occurs. But it seems fair to assume that any achievement with respect to them has been incidental, not planned for with any real attempt at implementation.

What would such implementation mean to the individual teacher? Here is the crucial point, regardless of what the administration may provide for, suggest, or require, and it will necessitate three things: (1) time and effort to develop ways of teaching for these objectives *within each discipline;* (2) means of evaluating such learning, so that procedures may be improved; and (3) a thorough study of, and probable revision of, motivation as it operates in today's classes.

We have long talked of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation, and still our gifted students have *not* been motivated. Some 40 percent of them have become so *un*motivated as to consider high school an educational terminus, and their ability has in great measure been lost to themselves and to society.

Not all of the disinterest is within the school. There is much of what one authority refers to as "antimotivation" in which those persons to whom the student owes a high amount of allegiance make such statements as "I never was any good at . . ." or "I always found . . . boring," and so on. Thus doubts arise as to values and goals, and the talented student shuns working out their resolution, preferring the security of allegiance.

The same type of antimotivation operates when the student is not adept socially, and suffers the discomfort of being unlike the group. The importance of peer approval has been treated so often that here it need only be mentioned as a factor operating against the teacher's efforts to stimulate the pupil to maximum growth.

But in a study of the objectives set forth here it would appear that certain motivations are inherent within each one—and that with the understandings, tools, and techniques so developed, motivation for other aspects of the student's academic life might be made easier. For example, let us take the gifted student who dislikes "all school" because he is plied daily with materials he already knows, processes he already understands, and techniques he can master immediately. If he sees that there may be hope in developing his ability to express *constructively* his problems of disappointment and general frustration, as well as further possibility for relief by learning to devise his own programs of work (under direction, of course), and to set goals commensurate with his ability and "present condition of knowledge"—then, indeed, he may pursue the paths of learning to the point of optimum development. And this—for all youth, yes, but for the talented youth *certainly*—is our goal. •

Is Permissive a "Dirty Word"?

Discipline: Strict or Permissive?

HELEN PUNER

In Parents' Magazine

DO you consider "permissive" a dirty word? Does "permissive" mean for you wild Indian kids bucking control—outstanding in wilfulness but flunking in perseverance—natural candidates, all, for juvenile delinquency? Do you believe that you have to choose between "permissiveness" and "strictness"—and that your choice is likely to be crucial to how the children will turn out?

Certainly the social scientists who study behavior have come up with persuasive findings that often, unfortunately, seem contradictory. Could it be that the effect of our child-rearing practices are less important than some other, less easily defined influences on our children?

Some light—diffused rather than focused—has been shed on this entire question by one of the country's leading sociologists, Dr. William H. Sewell of the University of Wisconsin. It's entirely possible, Dr. Sewell believes, that the significant and crucial matter is not the (child-rearing) practices themselves themselves, but the whole personal and social situation in which a child finds himself, with all that situation's ramifications, reverberations, undertones, and overtones. Dr. Sewell believes that American parents are not consistently one-method parents. They may be permissive with feeding or toilet training, for example, or during a particular period of a child's life, but be restrictive with some other aspects of training or in some other period.

Despite this inconsistency of parental practice, Dr. Sewell and his associates have found most of the children in their sample 162 families "well adjusted." From this they conclude: "Certainly, it would seem that the continued and consistent application of favorable or unfavorable practices is not the sole determining factor in good or poor adjustment."

If it isn't the practices so much, then what is it that's of equal or greater importance in forming the characters and personalities of our children?

"It is people and not methods of child rearing that are significant," suggests Dr. James H. S. Bossard of the University of Pennsylvania, one of the deans of American sociology. And "highly significant" for him is a study of young children

Helen Puner is Associate Editor, Parents' Magazine. Reported from Parents' Magazine, *XXXIV (April* 1959), 39, 116–20.

conducted by sociologist Marjorie L. Behrens which strongly indicates that a child's social adjustment is markedly related to its mother's character structure, but hardly at all to the mother's specific child-rearing techniques. Indeed, the mothers of 25 *badly* adjusted pre-school children Mrs. Behrens studied did rather well so far as using "acceptable" child-rearing practices. It was in the *quality* of their relationship with their children that they fell down badly.

Into this quality go such positive elements as affection, warmth, understanding of a child's needs, respect for the "self of the child," and the mother's ability to accommodate herself to her child emotionally. But into it, too, among Mrs. Behrens' poorly adjusted mothers, went the effect of their unstable character structures, their unrecognized or unresolved emotional conflicts. Such mothers, this study implies, can do everything right "by the book" and still produce poorly adjusted children. For, "it is evident that (a) child is both sensitive and responsive to the unconscious attitudes of the mother as well as her overt conduct."

Also, it's the interplay between a young child and his mother—the way they act, interact and interreact to each other—that matters most. It's a child's *total* perception of his mother, his *total* interreaction with her, that influence the quality of his adjustment.

But a child's perception of his mother doesn't depend solely on what his mother is. It also depends on what *he* is—on his biological and psychological make-up, on his emotional needs, on the way he has of reacting, and the accumulated weight of all his past reactions. The fact that the receiving end of the relationship between a parent and child is as important as the giving end may be one good reason why we see such variety in the personalities and characters of children that are brought up by the same parents.

WHERE DO WE STAND?

Where does this leave us? Where do we stand when the psychologists' and sociologists' reports have died down and the dust of seeming contradiction has settled? Are we perhaps where we've always been when we're in our best minds —able to steer for ourselves through the crossfire of "Be strict!" "Be permissive!" that peppers our parenthood?

I think we are. I think we all recognize, when we're best in tune with ourselves, that it's the *people* we are as parents, rather than the methods we use, that influence the personalities and characters of our children. If we've lived long enough with open hearts and minds with our children—if we've slowly, painstakingly, heartfully built a family—then we've come to know that *what* we do to and for our children is not the only determinant of their well-being; that *who* does it in what state of feeling, in what emotional climate is also high-

ly significant; that the family as a whole—its nature, its relationships, its process—is important, too.

Does all this mean that it doesn't make any difference whether a parent is "strict" or "permissive"? I think not. For practices stem from people, and people of thought, goodwill, selfunderstanding, or simply sound instinct, tend to use practices that benefit a child's growth. From parents who are people of real warmth, and understanding, who have the ability to see through a child's eyes and the spine to be committed to values they hold dear, stems a mature "permissiveness" that goes along with the grain of the child but doesn't ignore the reality that parents are for guiding.

LEAVE THEM ALONE?

This kind of permissiveness doesn't mean "love and leave them alone," doesn't mean blanket sanctioning. It grants permission to a child *selectively*—things permitted at one stage of his development need not be or won't be at another. What is permitted depends not only on the child's needs and wants but also on how his behavior affects the rest of the family or the part of the world he's impinging on.

But harshness, restrictiveness, severity, and punishment don't set the emotional atmosphere, aren't indulged in for their own sake. These parents hold steady. They make clear to a child what they want and expect of him in the way of behavior—out of the warmth of love, not the trigger-happy heat of constant anger or the ice of steady punishment.

Of course, to hold steady in lonely strength to one's own beliefs about rearing children is quite a trick in any era. It's not hard to recognize that we're all influenced by our time's prevailing ideas of what's "good," what's "acceptable"—and what's not. But have you ever stopped to consider that our time *itself* creates those ideas of good and right and acceptable?

A recently published book, *The Changing American Parent,* makes just this point. Its authors, two University of Michigan professors, say that our present concern with our children's "adjustment," with their ability to make friends, stems not from "some immutable natural law" but from the kind of "groupy," teamwork society we live in, where the ability to get along well with others in earning one's livelihood is as important as native ability for the job.

If we can see things in this kind of perspective, it becomes easier in a way to have the courage of the convictions of all good parents in any era—the courage to stand up for what we believe in despite the spirit of our time, and the humility not to demand of a child that he grow up in our own image.

It's the granting of this culminating permission for a child to find and be himself—that makes true permissiveness most emphatically *not* a dirty word. •

1959

Can the Public School Be Neutral?

An Unreligious View

ROBERT LEKACHMAN

In Religion and the Schools

THE importance of America's schools to the future of democratic society can scarcely be exaggerated. And because the schools attract so much attention and arouse so many hopes and expectations, the number of goals we ask our schools to reach have steadily increased. We not only expect them to provide skills in communication and computation but training in democracy, vocational preparation, and moral and ethical improvement. In a period of growing religious interest and growing religiosity, this last demand has created a new set of problems. It is all too easy to equate moral behavior with religious symbols and religious instruction and to infer from the equation that the symbols and instruction should be part of the public-school program.

This facile sequence is a serious misinterpretation of the problems of agreement between the religious and unreligious. This is no simple matter. Religious people themselves disagree not only about the elements of their respective faiths, but also about the dissemination of these elements in schools and colleges.

And how can local school boards satisfy the demands of some of their critics and allay the apprehensions of the remainder? What gratifies the Christian parent may strike some Jewish parents as covert antisemitism, and some irreligious parents as pernicious superstition.

Then Congress faces its own difficulties when it tries to win the approval both of Catholics who argue that justice demands appropriate support of parochial as well as of public schools, and of Protestants, Jews, and agnostics who insist on various grounds—constitutional, civic, or educational—that aid may legitimately go only to the public schools. School buses, free lunches, and an array of other fringe benefits have all been occasions of controversy. So confused have been the battle lines that, at times, opponents of public aid to religious schools have found themselves in the rather strange posture

Robert Lekachman, a member of the faculty at Barnard College, Columbia University, New York City, is a consultant to the Fund for the Republic's "study of basic issues underlying a free society." Reported from Religion and the Schools, *published by The Fund for the Republic, Inc.* (1959), 79–96.

of arguing that free bus transportation for parochial students constituted the establishment of a church.

The layman in the law should tread gently or not at all among the conflicting constitutional interpretations of the First Amendment. But it is hard to avoid noting that none of the conflicting groups has stood constitutionally naked in the strife; each has been able to cite favorite Supreme Court utterances, sometimes from the same case.

The heart of the case for the American public school is not only that it makes democracy more workable, but also that it encourages the free formation of many kinds of beliefs and many varieties of commitments. In a society which aspires to rub along in a democratic fashion, it is a good thing for future citizens to learn early and continuously how to get along with each other even when their beliefs importantly differ. A Catholic may believe of his Protestant friends that their path to salvation is infinitely more difficult than his own, but workable democracy depends on his coming to know his mistaken brothers, on his learning to work with them, while critical doctrinal differences are held in suspension. It is desirable for Catholic, Jewish, Protestant, and agnostic children to play and learn with each other. It is particularly important that they do so when the prevailing winds of doctrine emphasize religious affiliation.

Since home and church will stress the differences among children, it is appropriate at least, and possibly essential at most, that another influential agency emphasize their similarities. Clearly, this is an argument of degree. It does not imply that all children must go to public schools and none to religious schools or secular private schools. But it is an argument that most children should go to public schools.

Memory tells me that, when I was a child, children who attended parochial school seemed mysterious and disquieting. It was easy to entertain the notion that their lives were very different from mine. Nor do I recall that my reaction was different from that of other public-school pupils. What is different, children tend to resent and distrust. And not only children. Adult distinctions of principle will be more reasonable and more charitable when childish experiences are shared. Democracy depends on certain kinds of shared experiences and, of these, public education is probably one. Although democracy need not vanish with the collapse of one of these varieties of experience, it will operate less effectively.

NEUTRALITY DOCTRINE

But can the public school really be a neutral agency? Is not the preaching of neutrality itself a view of what is valuable, a doctrine in itself? As a matter of sheer logic, the answer is clearly affirmative. If one says in praise of the public school that it teaches an experimental attitude towards truth, even

that it judges truth to be evolving and changing, unmistakably such precepts imply that there is no fixed body of truth to communicate about the subjects taught in the school at least, and, by extension, perhaps about other subjects as well.

Not all public schools are addicted to these opinions, at least in this form. But suppose that they were. Would this assumption justify saying that since the public schools cannot be truly neutral about life's vital ends, then we should educate our children in schools which represent the truths we hold dear and in the public schools only when what is taught in public schools accords with our conceptions in every detail? I think not. Though formally a doctrine, openness forecloses no answers and prevents no commitments. The pupil will not, of course, hear his parents' religion praised as true, but neither will he hear it ridiculed as false.

On ultimate matters, the school does not conceive that it must teach or preach. If it helps children label as ultimate only the ultimate, so much the better, for the hardest thing in the world is to avoid acquiring firm beliefs about individuals, doctrines, races, and nationalities before experience and reflection have justified them. Everything in life—family, friends, church, and innate laziness—conspires to abbreviate the child's exploration of the world and to persuade him to adopt with a sigh of relief the faith of his fathers, not only in religion but also in politics, friendship, and taste. At best, the public school postpones some of these choices until they can become the acts of adults rather than the reflexes of children.

The public school is an ally of social tolerance, class fluidity, and the open mind. Therefore, it is an ally of democracy itself. French democracy is a horrible example of the pass to which an over-identification of too many principles can bring a gifted people. So far, the United States is a quite successful illustration of what reluctance to assume fixed positions of principle can achieve. In the end, democracy depends on the cooperation of people who, at least in theory, find each other's principles intolerable and have only recently got over the habit of fighting over them. Any agency which suggests that tentative approaches to principle in most human affairs are best, that different principles may have some justification, does much to raise the quality of democratic society.

PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

What are the practical implications of this position? I shall state them flatly: public support of parochial education is inadvisable; the right of churches and other groups to maintain educational institutions which meet the standards of the community is a part of freedom of opinion and freedom of religion; advantages already extended to religious and other private schools,

such as tax exemption, should in logic be retrieved, but in practice left undisturbed. Anyone convinced by my case for public education will not wish to promote religious or other private schools. Equally, anyone attached to the constitutional and libertarian values of democracy cannot deny the right of churches to sponsor their own schools.

A healthy democracy encourages the activity of all manner of voluntary groups intermediate between individuals and government. And, although any church may protest being classified with temporal institutions like clubs, societies, and unions which make no supernatural claims, it is hard to see how a democratic society can otherwise classify churches. Finally, social harmony and a decent respect for established practice imply that the issue of tax exemption should not be raised.

Financial aid to parochial schools is one of the unresolved issues between some of the religious and practically all of the unbelieving. It is obviously accurate to refer to only some of the religious because Protestants and Jews seem generally to oppose public aid, whether or not they maintain their own parochial school. Here there is a real difference of opinion about the meaning of justice and the ends of education. The fact that as a matter of prudence most Catholics do not care to press their demands should not conceal the existence of their deep conviction in the justice of their case and their consequent feeling that the community does not value properly what Catholic education does.

It is clear how I think that this issue should be settled. The public school is too valuable to encourage alternatives to it. Although this is a genuine issue, public debate on it has been confused and, all too frequently, prejudiced. In part, the low quality of the public argument has been the consequence of the mass of irrelevant controversy which has raged over Christmas plays, créches, displays of the Decalogue, Christmas carols, Hanukkah candles, and the like. Properly perceived, the issue for Catholics and other believers is whether their conception of religion demands that secular education be permeated with a theistic ethic or whether separation between religious and secular instruction is best for both. It is in this framework that debate about public aid to religious schools stands the best prospect of intelligent resolution. •

The Religious View

WHEN asked in Sunday School the name of the first man, one boy replied, "George Washington." Then, after a second, "But I suppose you mean Adam, if you count them foreigners."—From *Mississippi Educational Advance.*

Results of a Nationwide Experiment

National Program in Use of Television in the Public Schools

In Teaching by Television

Reported from Teaching by Television, *a report jointly published by the Ford Foundation and the Fund for the Advancement of Education, New York City* (*May* 1959), 46–59.

IN *Schools for Tomorrow,* a report by Alexander J. Stoddard which the Fund for the Advancement of Education published in 1957, the main thesis was that television could be used as a powerful resource for the teaching of very large classes. The report contended that such an arrangement could bring about substantial savings in classroom space and in the teaching positions while at the same time improving the quality of education.

Following the publication of this report, Fund representatives raised with a number of superintendents, particularly in large cities, the question of whether they would be interested in testing these hypotheses. It was out of these conversations that the National Program in the Use of Television in the Public Schools developed. This became a nationwide experiment which, in 1957-58, involved nearly 40,000 students in more than 200 elementary and secondary schools.

Participating in this first year of the National Program were the public-school systems of Atlanta; Cincinnati; Dade County (Miami), Florida; Detroit; Jefferson County, Kentucky; Milwaukee; Norfolk; Oklahoma City; Philadelphia; and Wichita, as well as scores of other school systems in Nebraska, North Carolina, and Oklahoma. In many ways, these school systems were representative of the nation's public schools. They were scattered over a wide geographic area. They ranged all the way from a two-teacher high school in Nebraska, which enrolled only 29 students, to the big schools of Detroit and Philadelphia enrolling several thousand. These schools also enrolled students from a wide variety of socio-economic and racial backgrounds, possessing a broad range of abilities and interests, and staffed by teachers who differed similarly in their backgrounds and their competency.

The story of the advance planning for this experiment, the problems of physical facilities encountered, the manner in which the classes taught by television were set up and conducted, and the roles of the teachers and their assistants—the ways, in fact, in which the many problems encountered

were met and solved—all are a part of the full report by the Fund for the Advancement of Education. In this short discussion of the experiment we must confine ourselves to some of the results of the experiment as observed by the schools involved.

To assist the participating schools systems and the Fund in evaluating the Program, two committees of educators and testing experts were established. The first, known as the Appraisal Committee, was headed by Herold C. Hunt, Eliot Professor of Education at the Harvard Graduate School of Education, and was charged with the responsibility of appraising such things as the quality of instruction, techniques and procedures of teaching large classes, the physical arrangements of the large classes, scheduling problems, and so forth. The second committee, known as the Evaluation Committee, was headed by Arthur E. Traxler, executive director of the Educational Records Bureau, and was responsible for advising the participating schools systems in the testing of student achievement and attitudes.

In the first year of the study, there was naturally wide variation among the different school systems in the kind and quality of the tests used and in the statistical treatment of the test results. Some schools matched experimental and control groups pupil for pupil, others matched on the basis of means and standard deviations of experimental and control groups, and still others took differences between the groups into account through analysis of co-variance (the procedure favored by the Evaluation Committee).

Although the testing and statistical procedures did vary widely, it may be stated that: Despite the newness of television as a medium of instruction, all sorts of technical difficulties, and the makeshift arrangements required to convert auditoriums, cafeterias, large study halls, and portable buildings into classrooms, the test results clearly showed that students who received part of their instruction over television in large classes did as well as—and in many cases significantly better than—students who were taught by conventional methods in small classes.

ENCOURAGING RESULTS

There were many other encouraging results which emerged from this first year's experience. For example:

1. The use of television as a medium of instruction in many instances brought about a rethinking of the curriculum and course objectives.

2. By bringing superior teaching to the attention of a great many classroom teachers, television proved to be a valuable means of improving the in-service training of teachers.

3. Because of the careful planning that went into televised courses, in many cases they proved much better organized than con-

ventional courses, and the television teachers found they could cover much more ground—and in less time—than they could by conventional methods.

4. Television brought into the classroom far richer educational experiences than had been possible before. In Philadelphia, for example, the chairman of the U. S. Committee on the International Geophysical Year spoke to several thousand science students on the meaning and the significance of the IGY.

5. Since all but one of the projects used open-circuit television, the studio teachers had a much wider audience than the students in the classrooms. They found that other school systems were tuning in on their broadcasts and that parents were watching regularly.

6. Much to the surprise of some observers, school librarians reported that the TV students—stimulated by provocative teaching—were making much more extensive use of the library than other students.

7. Several school systems reported substantial savings in teaching positions and in classroom space—with no sacrifice of quality. Dade County, for example, saved the equivalent of 27 teaching positions and 29 classrooms. In other cities, the teacher time saved by the use of television in large classes made it possible to provide much more individualized instruction for slow learners and rapid learners.

8. Tardiness and absences fell off sharply among students in the television classes.

9. Except in a few isolated cases, discipline was not a problem in the large classes.

10. The techniques of teaching and learning in large-class situations have by no means been thoroughly mastered, but the classroom teachers and students worked hard during the first year to develop and improve them. Classroom teachers experimented with various ways of eliciting student participation, both during and after the televised part of the lesson, and students began to develop the skills of note-taking and of speaking clearly and distinctly in the large classes.

UNSOLVED PROBLEMS

The school systems participating in the National Program—as might be expected—encountered many problems during this first year. Many of these problems had already been encountered in earlier experiments with television teaching. Some were solved fairly quickly. In general, these were the problems that remained unsolved as the program entered its second year in 1958-59:

1. *The problem of inadequate facilities.* Auditoriums and cafeterias were not designed for use as classrooms, and they were far from ideal when used for the large television classes. Several school systems, on the basis of their experience during the first year, made alterations to these large rooms in

an effort to improve them for classroom use during 1958-59.

2. *The problem of finding, recruiting, and training studio teachers.* Generally speaking, good classroom teachers make good television teachers, but there are special techniques any teacher must master in using television as a medium of instruction.

3. *The problem of training classroom teachers in the techniques of handling large classes, particularly in the techniques of eliciting student participation.* Discipline has not been a problem in the large classes, but student participation in a large class must of necessity take different forms than is customary in a small class. Several imaginative teachers in the large classes have devised new techniques for stimulating student discussion and involvement after the telecast part of the lesson, but much remains to be learned in this respect.

4. *Students, too, need to learn the techniques of learning in a large-class situation.* Here again, much remains to be learned about the nature of student participation and the various forms it can take.

5. *The problem of integrating the telecast part of the lesson and the classroom "follow-up" into a unified, meaningful whole.* This involves the whole question of the role of the studio teacher and the role of the classroom teacher as members of a teaching team—a question that needs much fuller exploration.

6. *The problem of organizing the curriculum to take maximum advantage of television as a teaching tool.* On the basis of the first year's experience, the participating school systems are convinced that the new medium makes possible a much broader, deeper, and richer curriculum than is possible under conventional methods of instruction. The problem is to develop a curriculum that fully utilizes the potentialities of the new medium.

7. *The problem of adapting the new technique of teaching by television to the varying abilities of students.* This also is a problem in conventional instruction, but it becomes increasingly important when a television teacher reaches several hundred—or several thousand—students in widely scattered classrooms.

8. *The problems of scheduling, with respect to the time of day the lesson is telecast and also with respect to the duration of the telecast and its place in the class period.* The latter aspect of the problem has important implications for the problem of integrating the telecast and the classroom "follow-up" into a meaningful whole.

9. *Finally, there is the never-ending problem of quality.* Television is essentially neutral as a conveyor of ideas, concepts, and information. The quality of the output can only be as good as the quality of the input. A mediocre teacher on television communicates her mediocrity to a much wider audience than a mediocre teacher in a classroom. •

A Time for Soul Searching and a Time for Discipline

Russian Lesson for Americans

EDGAR COLLINS BAIN

In National Parent-Teacher

IT is strangely difficult to bring oneself to say what is so clearly true—that one of the most important occurrences in the last decade or two of human affairs is the emergence of the Union of Socialist Soviet Republics as a major, if not dominating, influence. I have a vague and painful persuasion that we still feel that if we close our eyes to this fantastic and monstrous nation, it will somehow go away.

Yet today the U.S.S.R. stands as the most formidable competitor of the United States. Our best chance for finding a way of preserving this good life of ours, as we have known it in America for so many decades, may be to understand and cope with that curious and mighty totalitarian state. And one of the facts which should be understood is the unprecedented burgeoning of knowledge and the incentives offered for its attainment in the U.S.S.R.

The present Russian scale of living, although not high, has been growing steadily better. The country's amazing industrial achievements—thus far—have been focused on state projects, power development, and military applications. But year by year there are procurable for its citizens a few more necessities and perhaps, by Soviet standards, a luxury or two. It is easy for every young person to see that the items which are pleasant to own lie just outside the realm of the laborer. He is constantly informed that engineers may readily achieve an income of six or seven times the laborer's wage. An elementary-school teacher receives about three times the salary of the steel-mill laborer, and the income of a professor in the university or institute may be 16 times that of the laborer.

Here, then, are incentives multiplied beyond anything we have seen in our bourgeois capitalistic state. A bright young boy or girl in school scarcely dares *not* be a brilliant student. If a student fails, he goes to work—wherever he is needed (often in the mines), not where

Edgar Collins Bain is a famous metallurgist. Reported from National Parent-Teacher, *LIII* (*June* 1959), 24–25.

he would like to work. And to pull, as well as push, the student to erudition, the state pays him to attend college!

Then, having made intellectual achievement materially attractive, the government adds the highest social approval and recognition. For all manner of extraordinary contributions to the "welfare of the people through the state" there are huge prizes. Many of the winners are, in the nature of things, members of the Academy of Science and receive for that reason alone an honorarium of five thousand rubles a month (10 times the income of the lowest paid worker) without specified duties.

Hence we cannot but believe that the student in the U.S.S.R. goes to school in an eager, enthusiastic, and, above all, receptive mood. The environment as well as parental and contemporary attitudes appear to make schoolwork a desirable thing *to be permitted to do.*

If we accept the fact—as I think we must—that the Soviet Union has put its whole faith for survival and ascendancy in establishing the most effective education possible, we are obliged to study it in relation to our own system. And here we find several areas wherein we can make improvements.

More teachers could be attracted, and might acquire a better preparation for their lifework, if the incentives were greater—salary, yes, but also a proper appreciation and recognition of their critical importance in our way of life. But even then we might not turn out well-educated men and women. *Receptivity* must be present in each student, or he will not learn. (At times I have wondered whether learning on the part of eager students is not almost independent of teaching methods.)

I cannot believe that the boys and girls of the U.S.S.R. have better brains or greater native ability than ours. What seems to exist there is a dedication to learning, a devotion to personal mental development surpassing anything to be seen here today. It corresponds in intensity to the pioneering days in the Western World, to the energy of the Gold Rush, to a crusade. The central question, then, is "How can we match this fervor?"

Well, we have a certain head start. We are both a sensitive and a practical people, but we may have grown overconcerned with improving an already unmatched scale of living. It may be that our children do not perceive the critical need to learn in the very interest of survival. One can scarcely expect it of them when we adults have difficulty of doing so. Our problem is to create for ourselves the strength of austerity before a harder working country, through its economic weapons, brings grave trouble (worse than austerity) on us.

As we face this menace of as yet obscure character, our best bet is still better education, particularly in depth. By our attitudes, precepts,

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and example we must restore learning to a high position among human activities so that it will be the normal behavior of pupils in school to learn with high courage and determination. Selfdiscipline is, of course, better than applied discipline, but any kind is better than none. It might just be that the difference between preserving our good life and going the way of ancient Rome before the barbarians lies in doing homework every night.

In education we can, I believe, find the way to convince the world that free men can outperform slaves of the state—but only with discipline. Perhaps we should go back to the "morals" spelled out in the old schoolbooks with the characteristic philosophy which the familiar chosen selections invariably supported and exemplified: "There is no excellence except by great effort." "Waste not, want not." "Knowledge is power." Isn't it a strange and unfortunate thing that in this age—when such maxims are called "corny" and a disparaging epithet applied to those who espouse them—our potential adversaries have set them up as their guideposts of conduct?

It may not be easy to instill in young people the necessary will to survive, the courage and faith to endure hardship for a time. And for adults the task may be still harder. Yet is this not a time for soul searching and selfimposed discipline? Is it not a time, above all, for teaching, by deed and example, the need for strength and self-reliance? •

Education Lesson for Russians?

ONE wonders whether in the long run the high degree of dependence on education (in Russia) may not be the influence which may represent the strong possibility of significant changes in the Russian philosophy. The human mind does not always remain in the grooves in which it has been trained to run and the greater the ability of the individual and the higher the degree of training to which he has been subjected, the more likely is it that his mind will function independently. There seems reason to suppose, therefore, that the greater the emphasis on education in Russia, regardless of the nature of that education and training, the more likely it is that in the long run many of the minds in Russia will be sufficiently emancipated so that slavish acceptance of the Russian philosophy will be impossible. It will be interesting to see whether this phenomenon does occur.—*M. H. Trytten,* director, National Research Council Office of Scientific Personnel.

25 Years Make a Difference

Changes in English Programs

ARNO JEWETT

In English Language Arts in American High Schools

SEVERAL changes in English programs have taken place during the past quarter century. This is shown by a comparison of the courses of study and teaching guides in use today with the 1932 national study of the teaching of English made by Dora V. Smith and published under the title *Instruction in English*. Most of these changes, as described below, have come about gradually—at times almost imperceptibly—in response to new demands, social changes, and research findings.

Developmental reading instruction, for example, has become a part of the language-arts programs of many junior-high schools and of a few senior-high schools today. Dr. Smith in her study did not refer to developmental reading programs as such, although she did find that about one-third of the junior-high courses mentioned reading skills, often in connection with remedial programs.

The prevailing philosophy of today's teaching of developmental reading is expressed in an English bulletin published by the San Francisco schools. It points out that:

> **The organized teaching of reading as a skill should not stop suddenly at the end of elementary school. Most students in junior-high and senior-high schools, and even in colleges, need continuous help in improving their reading for speed, understanding, and appreciation. Such improvement is of vital importance, since inability to read is one of the greatest single causes of frustration in students and is thought by many authorities to be a basic cause for failure and dropping out.**

Another guide points out that all members of the school staff should assume responsibility for teaching reading but that the English teacher "should assume leadership in helping teachers in other subject areas with reading techniques and aid in developing a schoolwide reading program."

In response to America's interests in world affairs and her position of leadership in the free world, over two-thirds of the courses developed since 1950 include units aimed at developing an understanding and appreciation of other peoples and cultures. Dr. Smith, 25 years ago, reported only one elective course

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in "world masterpieces," and no reference was made, under her statement of aims of teaching literature in the high school, to developing an appreciation of other peoples and cultures through the study of world literature.

During the past 25 years, learning experiences in speaking and writing have become more closely related to the social, vocational, personal, and civic needs of youth. Today, resource units which have a guidance emphasis usually suggest numerous writing and speaking activities aimed at helping youth understand themselves and their associates. For grades 7 through 12 such units as "Growing Up," "Understanding Oneself," "Family Life," and "Understanding Others," often provide literary selections which motivate students to write and speak about their personal problems and their relationships.

Although the teaching of listening skills was not mentioned in Dr. Smith's survey 25 years ago, suggestions for teaching listening are found today in 70 percent of the state guides and 76 percent of the local guides. The importance of listening has been brought into focus by the popularity of radio, motion pictures, and television as media of instruction as well as entertainment. Today, listening is considered one of the language arts. As stated in the Pennsylvania *Course of Study in English for the Secondary Schools*:

Listening is one of the fundamental language skills. It is a medium through which children, young people, and adults gain a large portion of their education—their information, their understanding of the world and of human affairs, their ideals, sense of values, and their appreciation. In this day of mass communication (much of it oral), it is of vital importance that our pupils be taught to listen effectively and critically.

During the past quarter century the influence of mass media on pupils' language habits, vocabulary knowledge, cultural values, behavior patterns, and knowledge of life in general has become increasingly powerful. Recognition of this development has led many curriculum committees to incorporate learning activities and sometimes units on mass media in their courses of study. Today, two-thirds of the courses of study and guides include suggestions for teaching about magazines, newspapers, radio, and television. The chief aims of such instruction are to help pupils become discriminating in their selection of mass media, to evaluate what they read and hear, and to appreciate worthwhile programs based on well-known literature.

Dr. Smith, in 1932, reported that she had found only slight emphasis in courses of study on the teaching of critical thinking. Today, however, over half of the courses of study include objectives and activities which pertain to the teaching of propaganda analysis or critical thinking. Units and activities on critical thinking aim at helping

pupils note emotional appeals, loaded words, slanted communication, value judgments, stereotypes, half truths, diversionary arguments, name calling, and pseudoauthorities.

Recent courses of study in language arts seem to be moving away from propaganda analysis to a study of elementary semantics and the nature of language. Separate units of this type are to be found in bulletins produced by curriculum committees in a number of states. Such units acquaint pupils with the history of language, its social purpose, its imperfections as a tool for communication, its dynamic quality and evolving nature, the nature of meaning, levels of abstraction, connotation, and report language.

There have been several other major developments in language arts during the past quarter of a century. In brief, these are as follows:

1. An increased use of the unit method of instruction, especially of the resource unit.

2. A nationwide movement to teach reading, writing, speaking, and listening skills together whenever they are interrelated in a learning situation.

3. An extensive use of the thematic or idea-centered unit, especially in the junior-high school.

4. A renewed interest in adapting the instructional program to meet the needs and promote the abilities of rapid- and slow-learning pupils.

5. An ebort to determine adequate scope and sequence for the language-arts programs, especially in grammar, usage, mechanics, and reading.

6. A general concern for improving articulation between all divisions of the school system from kindergarten through college.

7. A concerted effort to teach youth an appreciation of the privileges and obligations of living in a free democratic society and to insill in youth the moral values and ethics which help to unify free peoples.

The directions which English programs will take in the future will continue to be affected by changes on the local, national, and international scenes. Our free civilization will continue to make more exacting and difficult demands on youth in the areas of the language arts. Language is the coin for creative thinking as well as the currency for exchanging ideas. It not only produces dividends in our daily life but it is the means whereby our spiritual and moral values are passed on through literature from one generation to the next.

It is because of his or her responsibilities for teaching reading, writing, speaking, and listening, that the teacher of language arts is the person on whom the success of the entire educational program depends. This is a fact which curriculum workers in every area of knowledge must consider in their efforts to improve the quality of secondary and higher education. •

A Schoolmaster to America

Noah Webster: Crusader for American Literacy

GERTRUDE HILDRETH

In The Elementary School Journal

A COMMEMORATIVE stamp issued on October 16, 1958, paid tribute to Noah Webster, American lexicographer, who was born 200 years ago in West Hartford, Connecticut. With true genius, Webster, whose name is synonymous with correct standards of speaking and spelling, carried on a lifelong campaign to promote universal literacy throughout the young republic.

The driving urge behind his labors was the zeal to build a strong united nation in the new world. Webster's aim was "to diffuse an uniformity and purity of language in America, to destroy the provincial prejudices that originate in the trifling differences to dialect and produce reciprocal ridicule." Class distinctions, which were traditional abroad, could not be tolerated in a nation founded on democratic principles. Webster sensed that the prevalent lack of schooling and the wide distances that separated people on the frontier from centers of culture might perpetuate not only peculiarities of sectional speech but mass illiteracy as well.

The aim of Webster's lifelong campaign was to establish consistency in pronunciation according to the best standards of correctness. He was zealous in his campaign to regularize orthography of the American language and to simplify spelling where this was practical. Soon he became the sole arbiter in such matters.

Webster accomplished his goals by many means. But none of these was more remarkable than the pocket-sized textbook *The American Spelling Book*, the famous blue-back speller, first published in 1783. Annual sales of the book rose to a million copies a year and more. By 1875, more than 75 million copies of this book had been distributed over the country. Often it was the only textbook in the hands of school children, the only schoolbook in the possession of the pioneers during their migration westward.

The popularity of the book reflects Webster's confidence in the value of universal elementary education and in the role of the schoolteacher as an intellectual leader in

the community. There is no question that this book was a greater factor than any other in establishing universal literacy in America.

An examination of this quaint little textbook is a truly educative experience for anyone who is interested in methods, old and new, of bringing literacy to the young. The book contains preliminary material for teachers and word lists interspersed with reading material. On the first page there is an analysis of sounds in the English language with rules for placing the accent and for pronouncing certain endings. This material was intended for the schoolmaster rather than for young pupils. After the rules come columns of words arranged systematically in tables of one-syllable words, two-syllable words, and so on. The latter lists are again divided into groups of words accented on the first syllable, the second syllable, and so on. These words, in turn, are grouped according to the ease or difficulty of pronouncing them. There is a table, for example, of easy words of three syllables, accented on the second syllable. Within each table the words are arranged alphabetically. Last of all come the words that are most irregular and most difficult to pronounce.

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The reading material throughout the book is graded solely in terms of the number of syllables in the words. The amount of reading material that contains polysyllabic words increases steadily to the end of the book, making up at least half of the final pages. There are also lists of proper names: names from the Bible, names of historical figures, and place names in geography. Webster wanted children in grammar school to be able to pronounce these words easily.

Even a cursory glance through the pages proves that Webster's *American Spelling Book* was not originally intended as a "speller" in the commonly accepted meaning of the term. In Webster's day the school exercise now known as spelling was called *orthography* and to *spell out* meant to pronounce printed words by syllables, for example, *pro-cras-ti-nate.*

By modern standards all of this was a roundabout way of instructing children in reading. The artificial text limited to words of one syllable bore little resemblance to children's natural oral expression. The formal drill in word pronunciation must have made reading lessons irksome and unduly complicated for beginners. Learning to read by "spelling out" was undoubtedly a slow, discouraging process for most children.

By 1836 school readers better adapted to child life and children's natural modes of learning were being published in New England and Webster's little book was used

less and less as a reader or a guide to pronunciation. A simpler use of the book was to assign columns of words for spelling practice according to the age and experience of the children. Used in this way, the book soon became famous as a speller in the modern sense of the term.

For a number of reasons, the compact little book was admirably suited for this use. Here were the most convenient, comprehensive lists of English words in print. With this handy reference source, spelling matches became the rage throughout the land—not only at school but in adult social life for evening entertainment. Children and adults alike enjoyed spelling, an easy memory feat for those who concentrated on practice. It is reasonable to suppose that the new meaning of the term spelling came directly from the use of this little volume with its word lists conveniently arranged for "spelldowns."

Webster could scarcely have objected to this use of his book, since any form of spelling practice with the word lists contributed directly or indirectly to learning to read and write, thereby serving the ultimate goal of making literacy a national habit. In studying for the spelling matches, the children were learning to spell words according to improved standards. They were also learning the true pronunciation of words by ear as the author had hoped, and there was a definite carry-over from the practice in spelling a large vocabulary to sounding and word recognition in reading.

Throughout his lifetime, Webster was constantly at work on various projects and publications—a dictionary, textbooks, American constitutional policy, the census, copyright laws, and American history, to mention a few. But nothing he accomplished had more influence on American life in his day—and he lived from 1758 to 1843—than his famous speller, the simple schoolbook with the blue paper covers. Exploring the yellowed pages of the well-worn little book makes one grateful for the legacy of Noah Webster, dedicated citizen, schoolmaster to America. •

Webster *Non Requiescat in Pace*
(Or Where's That Blue-Black Speller?)

• The recipe calls for one cup of *affectionate* sugar.—Reported by Mrs. Peck Baxter in *NEA Journal.*

• The rapid fall in pneumonia death rates since 1937 is due to the *Poloyo vaxcin.*—From *Science Review.*

• Careless phrasing (in music) is often caused by improper *breeding.*—From *Gopher Music Notes.*

• The Russians were the first to put a *saddle light* into space.—From *Indiana Teacher.*

Do You Have a Fear of Teaching Science?

Grade School Science Can Be Interesting

MARION BETAR

In The Educational Focus

TEACHERS in our elementary schools have had a great fear of "that awful subject—'Science.'" For one reason, they have felt that they were inadequately trained to teach such a complex subject. I ought to know because I was one of those teachers. I, like most of my fellow workers, had avoided science as much as possible in high school and college. Naturally, when we had to teach it, our methods of instruction mimicked the way we were taught. We played it safe, took it page by page, textbook style, and gave a test at the end of each chapter.

How the children suffered! How we suffered! The poor students had very little chance to increase their interests and abilities. Oh, we had activities! Every fall we studied leaves and seeds. We studied and experimented with plants and animals each year if the book said to. Sometimes, if there was time, we might do one or two ready-made experiments exactly the way Susan or David did in the textbook. We managed to cover the subject matter as was required. But was this teaching science?

This was the situation in our school when science began to take a more prominent place in the curriculum. Some of us felt more and more inadequate and we began to meet and discuss informally our common problems, our feelings of insecurity. We found that some of our teachers who had limited backgrounds were very successful and that they seemed to enjoy teaching science. They offered words of encouragement and invited us to visit their classrooms. Time to visit other classrooms was arranged and we were enlightened.

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Later we made a formal study of our problems through a science committee, a series of faculty meetings, and conferences with consultants. This was followed by the organization of workshops in elementary science, one for primary-grade teachers and one for intermediate-grade teachers. The workshops were conducted by an instructor who understood the problems of our staff. Some of us were so interested we attended both workshops. Many teachers also have attended science workshops conducted at state universities during summer sessions. In-service programs are now being conducted in our im-

mediate locality for those wishing further assistance and background.

Today, our teachers are sparked with enthusiasm. We continue to meet informally but these days we share and exchange ideas and are keeping a record of learning experiences we find most successful and purposeful. We have discovered that it is fun to try new ideas. We have found that the teacher need not always know the answers to childrens' questions and that "I don't know, but let's find out" is stimulating and challenging to both teachers and children. Now, I think we do teach science.

THE TEACHER'S TASK

Children are, by nature, full of curiosity and are constantly asking questions. They want and need to discover for themselves and to share their thoughts with their classmates and teachers. Most children love and enjoy science because it is a "doing" subject. Experimenting, observing, reading, discussing, field trips, and collecting are delightful avenues to worlds of new adventure for children. Our task, as teachers, is to guide children in setting up meaningful problems and to help children gather data, experiment, check, organize facts, and make generalizations which are within their ability range.

In our school, at the elementary level, children now are exploring the four major categories of science: The Earth and Its Atmosphere, The Universe, Living Things, and Physical and Chemical Forces and Phenomenons. Each area is being developed sequentially at each grade level. My own fifth graders selected Living Things as the area they wished to study first in the fall. Perhaps the appearance of several crickets in the classroom may have prompted this decision. How did the crickets get into the room? How do they make sounds? What do they eat? How do crickets raise their young? Are they insects?

AN INSECT UNIT

Our unit plans began with these problems. This led to searching through references and to discussion. As interest expanded, the children became curious to know more about other members of the insect family. And as the unit progressed, more and more interest in the examination of parts of insects became apparent. We prepared a killing jar, a small mayonnaise jar with cotton soaked in an insecticide. Another was developed which worked as well—a small jar of alcohol. Specimens were dissected and examined with hand lenses and later observed through our school's microprojector. Because of high group interest in preparing slides for the projector, we used plastic slides and covers made by the children. We now have a large slide file of insect parts which we plan to use later in the year at our school's annual Science Fair. We have had many visitors – children and teachers from other classrooms who were anxious to see what we were learning about insects. Many contributed

insects to our collection. It was not unusual to answer a knock at our door and find a tiny youngster holding a box or jar and asking, "Please help me to know what this is. I found it on the way to school."

How well do these children understand science? Evaluation of science at the elementary level is not merely discovering whether a child makes a satisfactory grade on a test which covers subject matter studied. Our objectives in science teaching are much broader. We are really concerned with how these facts fit together into meaningful concepts, with the method of problem solving, and with attitudes and interests and applications that have grown along with the learning. It is these that I wish to measure, and a test paper is not enough. I do most of my evaluating through observation of my children and recording ways children react, their progress in the ability to solve problems, and ways in which their behavior changes as a result of growth and understanding of concepts learned.

SOME REQUIREMENTS

A good science program requires the use of good science texts and audio and visual equipment. It is true that much of the equipment need not be elaborate laboratory items. Inexpensive and homemade items work out satisfactorily. However, it is important that pupils have some contact with truly scientific apparatus and materials as well. For example, one of our most valued and useful pieces of equipment is the micro-projector—a combination microscope and projector made by Bausch & Lomb. It projects magnified images of slide specimens on a table surface or on a wall or screen. We have used it when studying microscopic plant and animal life, arthropod parts, plant parts, textiles, food, hair, blood, crystal formation, and in examining hundreds of other interesting objects.

As children move forward in school, it is hoped that each experience they have had in science has helped them to satisfy their curiosity about their world. If they grow in their ability to solve problems, perhaps attitudes, interests, and appreciations will be developed. The experiences which we provide should help to broaden and deepen their interests and should also challenge students with special interests and abilities. If we are successful in establishing a sound program of science education in the primary and intermediate grades, children will be less apt to seek ways to evade science courses offered in the secondary school.

As teachers and children study science they gradually build concepts and understandings of the world about us. It is through the understanding of what is happening around us and why it happens that we are helped to react intelligently. This is the process by which children become better prepared to live in today's and tomorrow's environment. Teachers, too!

Is Intuition Enough?

Why Professional Preparation?

WALTER W. COOK

In NEA Journal

THERE are those among us who doubt that specific study of the educational process is a worthy one or that it has substance or content. This attitude is held in spite of the fact that it is a highly complicated process to bring the child—a potential savage—abreast of a culture and civilization which has taken more than 30 centuries to develop.

And, in addition to the process of humanizing the potential savage in the 12-year period of elementary and secondary education, the schools have other complex tasks. They have the responsibility of enabling each pupil to develop to the maximum his aptitudes and abilities and to become aware of his peculiar strengths and weaknesses in order that he may find a satisfactory place in the world of work. Also—say some—the beliefs, attitudes, and values taught by the schools must not conflict with the creeds of religious denominations, with the tenets held by business and labor groups, or with the varying goals of patriotic organizations.

Yet there are those who will say that the person who undertakes this task needs no special preparation for it. And, as if the work of the teacher were not complicated enough, consider the difficulties of understanding the child and his behavior. No two pupils are alike. As

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development takes place, variability becomes greater. Even if we ignore the 2 percent at both ends of the distribution, there is a range of more than four years in the development of six-year-olds in those traits with which the school is concerned. By the time youngsters reach high school, the range of educationally significant abilities will be 10 or more years.

The critic may speak of homogeneous grouping, but the teacher knows that a single pupil is not homogeneous. His ability to comprehend literary material may be at the level of achievement of a 16-year-old, his ability to comprehend natural-science material may be at the 10-year-old level, his speed and accuracy of computation in arithmetic may fall near the nine-year level, while his ability to reason in arithmetic may measure at the 14-year level.

That teachers have learned ways of meeting individual needs in heterogeneous groups is not even suspected as being possible by the critics of courses in education.

The prescribing of an intellectual diet for the optimum development of a child is a complicated process. Unlike a diet of food, it must change daily. What stimulates and challenges the intellect today may not do so tomorrow. And that which stimulates and challenges the intellect of one child may not challenge that of another child.

Yet the teacher is said to need no help in prescribing daily an intellectual diet for 35 or more elementary pupils or as many as 200 high-school students.

The homes from which the children come, the social climates of the families, the values which are held to be important, the ambitions, victories, and disappointments which each child has—all operate to make the pupil a distinct personality. He must be known and understood if he is to be inspired and given hope and faith and selfrespect. Does the person responsible for all this require only a subject-matter preparation?

To be sensitive to the clues which a child gives in his eagerness for knowledge and to prevent his spontaneity from being deadened by a dull, inflexible schooling process require a level of insight and understanding on the part of the teacher which rarely can be left to intuition. •

Knowledge—and Experience

• Experience is a wonderful thing. It enables you to recognize a mistake when you make it again.—From *Pathfinder.*

• "This examination," said the experienced professor, "will be conducted on the honor system. Please sit three seats apart and in alternate rows."—From *The Balance Sheet.*

• Listen to the opinions of others; it may not do you any good, but it will them.—From *Business Briefs.*

• Remember the old saying at Cambridge: "Here I am, my name is Jowett; I am the master of Balliol College. All there is to know, I know it. What I don't know, is not knowledge."—W. H. Kilpatrick in *Progressive Education.*

• Nothing in education is so astonishing as the amount of ignorance it accumulates in the form of inert facts.—From *Executives Digest.*

• An educated man is one who has finally discovered that there are some questions to which nobody has the answers. —From *Texas Outlook.*

• The Chinese believe that there's an age in which to learn everything. If you try to teach a child too young, he can't learn it; and you just wear yourself out and ruin his temper and your own, too.—*Pearl Buck.*

Counter to the General Trend

The Status of Women in School Administration

ALICE S. BARTER

In Educational Horizons

DURING World War II, American women served in many capacities from which they previously had been debarred. In great numbers, they infiltrated factories, schools, business establishments, and the armed forces. Contrary to expectations, women continued to hold down these jobs after the war ended. As a consequence, the number of women wage-earners has increased.

Paralleling the rise in the number of women employes has been an improvement in their status as workers. Although outstanding effort and ability are often required of women who compete favorably against men for higher-level positions, the number of women holding supervisory or executive positions is growing.

Since World War II, the status of women within the teaching profession appears to run counter to the general pattern described above. From 1925-50, the percentage of women holding administrative positions in the school systems of this country has declined, although more women were teaching than ever before. A practice that will do little to arrest this decline is that of inducing young men to become elementary-school teachers with the understanding that a promotion to the elementary-school principalship will be rapid. Since the war, there has been a concerted effort to bring more men into the teaching profession, particularly as teachers of elementary-school children. In order to attract or retain these men, *some* school systems have weighted opportunities for administrative advancement strongly in their favor.

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Developments such as this invite inquiry. As women we are particularly curious about what pertains to us as a sex. Probably we have asked ourselves such questions as these: How well *are* women represented on the administrative staffs of their school systems? What attitudes on the part of teachers themselves have contributed to the status of women teachers?

A study that sought some answers—from both women and men teachers—to these and related questions was recently completed by the author at the University of Michigan. The results were not always as anticipated.

Here, briefly are some of the facts learned: (1) Women teachers were more favorable toward women principals than men teachers. (2) Women interested in the principalship as a career were more favorable toward women principals than women not interested in that career. (3) Men teachers who had had teaching experience with women principals were more favorable toward them than men having had no experience with them. (4) The majority of teachers rated men and women principals equal in abilities and personal qualities. (5) Approximately 46 percent of the men but only 7.8 percent of the women teachers were definitely interested in the elementary principalship as a career. (6) Men teachers were better prepared academically than women teachers for appointments to the principalship. (7) A preference for teaching was given by both men and women teachers as their chief reason when there was disinterest in the principalship. (8) Most teachers *felt* their systems showed preference for men in appointments to the principalship. (9) Only six of the 18 school systems queried had definite policies for promotion to the elementary principalship and *no* system stated a policy favoring men for promotion to the principalship. (10) The proportion of men and women principals in these systems was four men to every woman.

Despite the fact that women elementary-school principals were definitely in the minority in the school systems studied, the data gathered for the study did not show that policies discriminate against women and that qualified women seeking appointment to the principalship within these systems would not be given fair consideration. Also, the attitudes of elementary teachers toward women principals appears to be no great obstacle to a woman's success as an elementary-school principal.

However, it is predicted that the number of women holding administrative positions will decline regardless of these conditions if more women do not prepare themselves for these positions and if the great majority of them continue to reject the principalship as a career. In fact, if the teachers sampled in this study are typical of teachers generally, the apathetic attitude of women teachers toward administrative appointments emerges as a key factor in their present status.

As a means to stimulate women to seek administrative appointments, the following suggestions may be useful: (1) a course of study in schools of education especially designed to prepare women for school administration; (2) intern-type training which will shorten the step from classroom to office; and (3) improved promotional policies—better defined and more specific—as well as more publicity about administrative vacancies, which would encourage qualified people of both sexes to apply for promotion to such posts. •

How Well Does Johnny Read?

Values and Limitations of Standardized Reading Tests

ARTHUR E. TRAXLER

In Evaluation of Reading

REVERSING the title, I shall speak first of limitations and then of values. This reversal does not mean that I believe the limitations are more important than the values, but that there are certain limitations which are inherent in the reading process and which logically ought to be considered first of all.

The first kind of limitation is to be found in the very nature of the reading act. Reading is a complex, unified, continuous activity which does not naturally fall into subdivisions or measurable units. In this respect, reading differs from other basic skills, such as arithmetic and spelling. And while there is considerable agreement that there are three broad aspects of reading on which information is needed—speed, vocabulary, and comprehension—a second limitation arises because of the complexity of these subdivisions. For instance, the measurement of rate of reading is not the simple procedure it may at first seem to be. There is not just one rate of reading for an individual—the speed at which he covers an exciting novel may be several times as fast as his rate of reading a research article.

A third limitation is the lack of clear differentiation between measurement of reading comprehension and measurement of intelligence. When we give a reading test that really probes ability to think about the reading material, are we measuring reading or intelligence? The answer is that scores on this kind of test represent a composite of both intelligence and ability to read. Hence, it is very difficult to predict how much the scores of individuals who are low on such a test may be improved by teaching.

A fourth limitation of reading tests is the time-consuming nature of the measurement of reading, particularly reading comprehension. Vocabulary test items can be done quickly, but reading comprehen-

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sion tests are not efficient because of the necessity of covering both reading passages and questions based on them. This limitation can readily be removed if schools agree to devote a period of two or three hours to the measurement of reading instead of 40 minutes or less.

Notwithstanding the limitations of standardized reading tests, it would be next to impossible to plan and carry on a modern reading program without them. They have positive values for instruction in reading in all schools.

LENDS DEFINITENESS

Perhaps the most important value of a reading test—or any other standardized test—is that it lends a certain amount of definiteness to our thinking about the achievement of a pupil or a group. Without reading tests, it is possible only to say: "Here is a pupil who appears to be a good reader; here is another who doesn't read well." But we cannot be very confident about our classification when it is done simply on a subjective basis. Reading tests enable us to speak about reading ability in quantitative terms with considerable confidence, provided we keep in mind that every test score contains an error of measurement and that we recognize the unimportance of small differences in score.

When a reading test is given to a seventh-grade class, it is possible to say, "That pupil reads about as well as the average ninth grader; this pupil is approximately at the fifth-grade level in reading ability; and here is a very retarded pupil whose reading is still on the level of grade 2." Moreover, if the test yields part scores, we can make such further quantitative statements as, "In comparison with the norms for his grade, John has a rate of reading percentile of 96, a vocabulary percentile of 52, but a comprehension percentile of only 15."

These kinds of information lend definiteness and direction to the planning of reading instruction for both groups and individuals. They provide reasonably firm basis for developmental, corrective, and remedial programs, even though teachers need to remind themselves occasionally that the basis is not quite as solid and dependable as the bald, bold figures suggest, because of the limitations of reading tests already mentioned.

GROWTH APPRAISAL

A second value of reading tests is for the appraisal of growth of individuals and groups in a developmental reading program. Is the total reading program of the school well designed to bring about normal or better growth of pupils at all grade levels and levels of ability? If not, where do the weaknesses exist? Such questions as these cannot be answered simply through the use of observation and teacher judgment. But if different forms of tests yielding comparable scores are used annually, and if the results are carefully studied, a con-

stant check can be kept on the reading program as a whole and on the rate of reading growth of individual pupils.

A third value of reading tests lies in diagnosis of the strengths and weaknesses of groups and individuals as a starting point for corrective or remedial work. However, it should be kept in mind that reading tests are not in themselves diagnostic. They yield worthwhile information for diagnosis only when someone attempts to relate the results to other kinds of information about the pupil.

Still another value of reading tests lies in the early identification of gifted pupils. Nearly all gifted pupils read well, particularly in the field of their greatest ability and interest. When the gifted child first enters school, his reading ability sometimes may be beyond the usual reading test designed for the lower primary grades, and a more difficult test may be needed in order to measure his actual achievement. It is desirable to supplement the school's regular testing program with reading tests appropriate to the ability level of very superior children so that suitable activities may be planned for them. Too often attempts to identify the gifted are delayed until the junior- or senior-high school level. This is frequently too late, for by that time many potentially outstanding children will have fallen into habits of an easy mediocrity in reading, as well as in other school activities.

Now I would like to comment briefly on the values and limitations of several types of reading tests.

TYPES OF TESTS

One kind is that which yields only one total score. Forty or 50 years ago, when the first objective tests appeared, a number of reading tests were one-score tests, but tests of this kind almost disappeared from the scene until 1957, when the Sequential Tests of Educational Progress (Educational Testing Service, 1957), or STEP, were published. At each level, the reading test of this series is a 70-minute test yielding only one overall score. The STEP Reading Test is a most carefully constructed test, but it is difficult to see how it will be of much value in a reading program if used alone. However, there is also in the STEP series a Listening Comprehension Test. It is believed that a listening test is one of the best measures of potential reading ability, although more research evidence is needed on this point. In any event, the STEP Listening Test and the STEP Reading Test, when used together, should furnish some information having broad diagnostic value.

At the other extreme, there is a kind of reading test in which an attempt is made to obtain within a class period a large number of part scores for purposes of diagnosis. This type of test is well illustrated by the Iowa Silent Reading Tests (World) and the California Reading Tests (California

Test Bureau). Such tests, in which the time limits for the parts are very brief, either will have a large speed component in all scores, or the number of questions in each part will be so small that the scores will be low in reliability, or both. The total scores on these tests are often highly reliable, but it is more appropriate to use the part scores on tests of this kind for the study of groups than for individual diagnosis.

A third kind of reading test is aimed at the measurement of three aspects of reading believed to be especially important, such as rate, vocabulary, and power of comprehension. Fairly reliable measures of these aspects may be obtained within a class period, although the reliability of the comprehension score tends to be somewhat low.

In the primary grades the measurement of three or more aspects of reading ability within the same class period presents difficulties because of the short attention span of young children. Gates met this problem by having his Primary Reading Tests (Bureau of Publications, Teachers College) printed separately—one each for word recognition, sentence reading, and paragraph reading. The Gates tests continue to be among the most satisfactory reading tests for use at this level.

The most logical way of meeting the needs for a quickly administered survey test and dependable diagnostic scores would seem to be through a coordinated battery in which the survey test would be given first, to be followed by diagnostic tests appropriate to the weaknesses indicated on an individual or small-group basis. Thus far, the only tests of this kind are the Diagnostic Reading Tests (Committee on Diagnostic Reading Tests, Inc.). The Committee has also undertaken to provide teaching materials for use in overcoming the weaknesses revealed by the diagnosis.

ONLY PARTIAL INFORMATION

As already suggested, reading tests furnish only a portion of the information needed in carrying on a school reading evaluation program. So far as is possible, these tests should be used in conjunction with individual tests of mental ability, listening ability, achievement tests in the content areas, measures of interests, and inventories of personal qualities.

Standardized reading tests have limitations, in addition to those mentioned earlier, in that they furnish no direct information about interests or personality. As all teachers know, the sources of reading difficulty are not always to be found in the learning area. They often originate in the pupil's home, in his social group, in health and physical handicaps, or in his general adjustment to the environment of the school. Reading test scores reach their greatest meaning and usefulness when they fall into place in a comprehensive individual cumulative record. •

Good vs. Bad

Comparative Study of Novels

DAVID M. LITSEY

In The English Journal

THIS is a report of a junior English unit on the novel. It arose as a protest against students' being led through novels and told that such and such a book (*Huckleberry Finn, Swiftwater, Great Expectations,* etc.) is good because of its "superbly motivated characterization," its "realistic plot," its "indelibly delineated setting," or like criterions.

The unit was based on the theory that judgments take on precision and profundity as we formulate them with an abundance of comparative background. Realism becomes more real when matched against the melodrama of a poor novel; characterization becomes more finely etched when held against a background of caricature or stereotype; the vivid setting stands out when compared with the prosaic and trite description of an inferior novel.

Students need, somewhere along the line, to be taken by the hand and led slowly through a concrete demonstration of the good and bad, successful and unsuccessful, meaningful and unmeaningful—in the specific novel. With this in mind a two-novel comparison was worked out.

From a score of suitable books, we chose *The Wyoming Bubble* by Elston and *The Pearl* by Steinbeck

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as "bad" and "good" respectively. Generally speaking, the novels used should be broadly matched as to type for more effective comparison.

One of the things that characterizes the poorer novel is its insidious and oftentimes unwarranted assumptions in regard to life. Hazel Sample in her *Pitfalls for Readers of Fiction* pointed out many good examples, such as: that adulthood is a glamorous, mysterious realm; that college is a magic, charmed environment full of dates and football games; that complex consequences or situations can be attributed to one cause; and that if one works hard and gets a good education he will naturally rise to the top. Readers need to be "sensitized" to these assumptions, to come aware of them, and to examine them, true or not.

Now, during this unit we first discussed assumptions in literature and, in sample passages, found ample illustrations. Then the class read the first two chapters of *The Wyoming Bubble* in class. Following this, the class, with help, elic-

ited six assumptions contained in merely the first two chapters of this book.

In a different vein, and at the same point in the reading, the students were asked to write a short sketch of the main character, Russ Hyatt. A few short minutes of agony were enough to convince them the job was Herculean—because they knew nothing about him, nor, as they later learned, were they ever to know anything significant of his background, motivations, etc. He was flat. The flatness became signal when later compared with the elemental but three-dimensional Kino in *The Pearl.*

The melodrama of the *Bubble* was the most obvious of its intellectual insults. (The hero was shot at countless times, once by a professional gun-slinger at close range as he stood silhouetted against a street light.) I wasn't just sure of the attitude the class would take. Luckily, they decided to be supersophisticated and *hate* the book—with force!

Once we moved into our contrast novel, *The Pearl,* I had trouble subduing the manifold exuberance of the class (which was exaggerated). We had been reading rapidly, but now we slowed down a little to enjoy the beauties of the language and to "sponge up" the technical excellence of the mechanical construction. Although here, too, we found unwarranted assumptions and melodramatic bits—even black and white characters sometimes—the grandeur of the book triumphed. Discussion was possible on many different planes.

We took a look at the background music theme. If a native is inarticulate, how are the experiences of life to be apperceived but as either a strange foreboding or comforting harmony? Thus, the Song of the Family or of Evil or of the Undersea. We compared it to Greek drama in intensity, in theme, in use of the townspeople as a chorus to interpret the action.

The technical superiority of Steinbeck as a writer to Elston was noted and approved. We considered the excellence of description—of the town, the beach, and the sea—in the second chapter. We remarked the tremendous episode at the pearl buyers, noted the sentence construction, the careful choice of diction, the attention to details, the realism. This was all highlighted by the shadow of *The Wyoming Bubble,* where the effect was coarse and broad. In Steinbeck there was power, yet delicacy.

This comparative study was done within the context of a "contract" unit. Among the many activities was a great deal of critique writing. There was no final examination, nor does the author feel sympathy with that segment which assumes that a "unit examination" is a must. The report papers, which provided meaningful writing practice, and class response in our many discussions showed the reading maturity attained and the success of the unit. •

Report of a Survey on the Status of

Music Literature, Theory, and Composition in the High School

In Music in the Senior High School

As a part of the "Music in American Education" program of the Music Educators National Conference a committee has been studying problems relating to the teaching of music literature, theory, and composition. For the purpose of arriving at a basic philosophy for these fields and the recommendation of a practical approach toward their inclusion in the educational program, a survey was necessary to ascertain the present status of these subjects in the high school. The committee, therefore, has examined the situation in 121 schools which represent school districts of every size in 28 of the United States. A summary of some of the findings follows.

The questionnaires used the term "music theory" to refer to all subjects commonly included under such headings as music fundamentals, harmony, solfeggio, counterpoint, arranging, and form analysis. Almost a third of the schools indicated that they offered a special course in some of these. Some theory is taught as part of the course content for performance groups, but there were more schools that indicated this was not a *planned* course of theory study than there were schools with such an organized presentation.

Reported from Music in the Senior High School, *a publication of Music Educators National Conference, prepared by the MENC Music in American Life Commission on Music in the Senior High School, Chapter VI, Part II,* 76–79.

Planned theory work was reported most frequently in connection with beginning band and girls' glee club and least often in advanced choir or advanced band. Practically all groups learned musical terminology. Scale structure received much emphasis in advanced chorus and both intermediate and advanced band. Interval study was frequently included in advanced chorus, small vocal groups, and advanced and intermediate band. Harmony study was a part of the work in select as well as general chorus, and was also included in advanced and intermediate band.

The questionnaire used the term "music literature" to include all the musical materials used in the student's high-school experience. Almost half of the schools reported at least one music literature course, usually as an elective, and a number of schools offered more than one such course. The courses most frequently named "music litera-

ture" were general music, appreciation of music, music history, and standard repertoire. When asked the type of music experience offering the greatest understanding of music literature, most respondents favored active participation in bands, choirs, and orchestras over "special courses."

Regarding composition, there were some respondents who felt that a high-school music composition class would be desirable. But the more frequent response was that composition should be the outgrowth of either a harmony class or a performance group. The incentive provided by public performance of students' original work was considered by many teachers the most important factor in encouraging creative endeavor. Some respondents objected to the suggestion of a high-school music composition class on the basis of overspecialization and recommended that such a course be reserved for college.

Participation in groups, both large and small, ranked highest when educators were asked to name the experiences most important in encouraging students to write original music. "Private lessons" and "providing music for use with other high-school activities" ranked next in order.

A section of the questionnaire gave music teachers opportunity to present their attitudes and those of their administrators toward special classes in music literature, theory, and composition and the inclusion of these subjects, not as special classes, but as supplementary to performance. A summary of the replies shows that special classes are considered desirable for broadening and enriching the high-school curriculum, but are often excluded because of scheduling and staffing problems involved.

College entrance requirements do not allow enough credit for music, which has a tendency to dim the enthusiasm of some administrators for special music classes. There is also the problem of justifying special classes in which enrolment might be very small. On the other hand, while present circumstances make special music classes impractical for the majority, many teachers are concerned over the haphazard nature of their efforts to include any teaching of music theory, literature, and composition through their regular performance groups.

One section of the questionnaire gave the teachers an opportunity to evaluate the adequacy of their own college training as preparation for teaching these subjects. Only a very small minority felt that they were not adequately prepared to teach music theory in high school while a fifth of the respondents expressed some dissatisfaction with respect to their training experience in the field of music literature. On the other hand, just under half of the teachers felt qualified to teach music composition; almost as many felt that their preparation had been inadequate for such an assignment. •

How Can Input, Imagery, and Output Be Balanced?

Psychology of Spelling

JEAN S. HANNA and PAUL R. HANNA

In The National Elementary Principal

THE study of the history of the teaching of spelling in the schools reveals that the different approaches made to this subject over the years have been based on various assumptions on how learning takes place. The repetitive drill is one. The emphasis placed on memory—as in the learning of spelling rules and principles of orthography—is another. More recently there has been the emphasis on the role of pupil interest and the importance of meaning to the learning of the spelling skill.

Credit is due to the many researchers who have contributed to our knowledge of the psychology of spelling. To date, the research on learning to spell has, however, neglected serious study of the basic sciences of neurology, endocrinology, and physiology. Likewise, little attention by spelling researchers has been paid to such fields as cybernetics (communication theory) or to the model of the electronic computer. As of this moment no one has done much speculating and even less careful research on how the findings and theories of these branches of science might affect our knowledge of what actually takes place in (1) *perceiving* in the sensory organs the sounds, sights, and feelings of the spelling word to be learned; (2) *transmitting* these sensory impressions to the central nervous system (brain); (3) *sorting* and *storing* the imagery in the cell assemblies of the brain; (4) *transmitting* the image into the motor (neuromuscular) mechanism that finally hand-writes or hand-types the correct spelling of the word needed.

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The complex neurological behavior of the spelling act is not understood at the moment. But it should not be too difficult to perceive that spelling may properly be thought of as behavior that is learned, retained, and used through the brain and its sensory organs and neuromuscular mechanisms. What we are pointing out is that spelling is essentially a matter of neurological *input, imagery,* and *output.* While we know that the brain acts as a unit, we can still educate the brain for spelling through first emphasizing one type of input and imagery,

and then stressing another type. Each of the types—visual, oral-aural, and haptical—must be systematically planned and learned in the spelling program. And as each type of imagery is learned, it must be systematically joined and coordinated with the other types of imagery so that the net result is a reinforcement by each of the others.

PROCESSES USED

A modern spelling program uses in balance, in alternation, and for the purposes of reinforcement, the following processes:

1. *Oral-aural* analysis of the phonemes in the 3000 basic words which are, on school entrance, well within the vocal communication of children; teaching the alphabetical letters used to write the 80 percent of the phonemes in the 3000 word list that are spelled consistently one way; teaching that some of the phonemes (20 percent) are troublesome in that they may be spelled several ways, but that there are clearly observable classes of these irregularly spelled phonemes that can be learned together (final long sound of *a* is almost always spelled *ay* as in *play, say, may*).

2. *Visual* analysis of the alphabetical letters in a word arranged in sequence to fix an image that may be called into the mind's conscious foreground to guide the motor response. This visual imagery is aided by the oral-aural power of analysis.

3. *Haptical practice* in which the objective is to fix through hand repetition a motor image so firmly that the hand will write or type the letters of the word with only semi-conscious feedback or checking by the eye against the visual image stored in the brain.

4. *Thinking* or the application of structural principles to the spelling problem (e.g., making derivations out of root words).

No spelling program devised during the first half of this century balanced the training of neurological input, imagery, and output as suggested above. Fortunately, there are today several alternative programs that build on our newer neurological and our psychological knowledge. There can be a profitable union of the interest and meaning approach, developed during the 1920-1955 period, with the systematic program of developing oral-aural, visual, and haptical imagery. To the extent that our children possess an oral-aural mastery of the meaning and use of most of the spelling words, we can add the one new, powerful spelling tool of *phonemic* analysis. And to these approaches we must add the current theories and practices of forming and using generalizations about the structure of the spelling of our language.

TODAY'S OBJECTIVE

From such a coordinated spelling program there will surely emerge a majority who have mastered the basic list and its derivatives and in addition will have developed the power to spell words

far in excess of the minimum now thought adequate. Building spelling power is the objective of today's spelling programs.

The early spelling textbooks offered no special plan for studying the words. By 1900, however, most spelling series seemed to favor a weekly plan for studying a prescribed list of words.

Controversy arose over whether study of the list should open the week's work, or whether the pupil should first be tested to find which words he needed to study. This controversy was settled by research and common sense so that on alternate days pupils studied, were tested, studied, and again were tested.

WEEKLY SCHEDULE

When the idea of the story or theme became the popular way to present the study words for the week, then Monday's spelling time was consumed in reading and discussing the theme or story. But it is now recognized that a simple sentence or picture will focus meaning for the child who most likely already uses the word freely in his verbal communication and needs no intensive period of developing meaning and readiness. Further, with the addition of the aural-oral analysis in building spelling power, the time formerly consumed by a theme or story can now be put to better use in presenting the words to be learned during the week, with much attention to the similarities in phonemes, and consistencies and variations in spelling these sounds. The typical weekly plan today has these daily features:

First Day. Words to be studied for the week are presented through pictures or simple sentences. Meaning of each word is developed. Major phonemic principle illustrated by the word list is presented. Any unusual spelling of phonemes is observed. The words are written by copying directly.

Second Day. All pupils are tested to discover which words in the list need special attention by each child.

Third Day. Words missed on the first test are studied. Further practice on the phonemic principle. Review words are studied.

Fourth Day. Study of words missed in first test and previous final tests are continued. Practice on aural-oral analysis of words in list is continued and spelling power is built by applying rules and generalizations to words not in list but similar in orthography. Additional spelling words are learned by forming derivates from the word list. Pupils study their list of *My Own Words* encountered in their individual writing.

Fifth Day. Final test on words in week's list and on words missed in previous final tests. Test on pupil's *My Own Words.*

Such a weekly study plan plus a consistent and persistent re-evaluation with carry-over of unlearned words should provide the pupil with the elements necessary to help him develop spelling power. •

With Education in Washington

THE EDUCATION DIGEST WASHINGTON BUREAU

A Distinguishing Feature.—The first session of the 86th Congress never came to grips with a single major educational issue. This one fact distinguishes this session from those of previous years.

"In previous years we've at least had the satisfaction of a major bill coming up for a final vote, even though it was defeated," Washington observers have remarked. During the session of Congress which ended in September, there were talk, testimony, debate. But final legislative action was confined to relatively minor measures—with one exception. The exception: Congress approved close to $1 billion in grants and appropriations for educational purposes for 1960.

One of the largest appropriations, totalling $225 million, was for federally-affected school districts. This, incidentally, was $45 million more than the President's budget asked for, and is a fair sample of the generous mood in which Congress basked during the session. Other large appropriations went for National Science Foundation education activities ($152 million); the National Defense Education Act ($150 million); and school lunches ($110 million). Another indication of Congressional largesse: the Administration asked only $5 million for rural libraries; Congress voted $6 million.

Of the three minor measures on which Congress acted, two hardly made the back pages of the nation's newspapers:

1. *Overseas teachers.* As a result of a new law, PL 91, some 4,500 teachers employed in schools operated by the Department of Defense now enjoy a professional salary schedule.

Previously these teachers, employed in so-called "dependent schools" from Africa to Labrador, worked under a 12-month calendar year schedule prescribed for civil service employees. The new schedule calls for 10 months of employment and grants the overseas teachers all the holidays observed by schools on the continent.

2. *Spanish-American war veterans.* It is now more than half a century since the boys came marching home, but on August 25, 1959, Congress completed action on a bill providing orphan's educational benefits for children of Spanish-American War veterans who died of a service-connected disability. (Similar benefits for orphans of World War I and II and Korean War veterans are already on the books.)

One bill that did hit the front pages was the controversial housing bill, two items of which affected education. Colleges and universities located in the heart of cities stood to benefit under the urban renewal clause; and higher education had a title of its own which provided more funds and loans for

the construction of dormitories and other academic facilities.

The housing bill attracted a good deal of attention because it had at least two lives. The first version was vetoed by the President. A second bill, passed in both Houses by roll-call vote, was promptly vetoed the second time.

The overseas teacher bill was promptly signed by the President while the Spanish-American bill awaited his certain signature.

This by no means completes the record of Congressional activity on school measures.

The Senate passed two bills—one creating a Youth Conservation Corps and one setting up a system of school benefits for Post Korean veterans—and sent them on to the House. (These bills are discussed more fully below.) And to round out the story for the Senate, it also approved a bill providing modest grants-in-aid to the states for the construction of educational TV facilities.

As for the issues which Washington observers call "major," Congressional action can be summed up in two sentences:

Scores on scores of bills seeking large sums of money for school construction, for teacher salaries, or for both purposes got nowhere.

The Murray-Metcalf bill, the measure supported by the National Education Association, was kicked around throughout the session and at the end the verdict was as follows: "The Murray-Metcalf bill is not dead, neither is it alive."

Ex-GI Education. — The ex-serviceman of World War II flocked to courses preparing him for jobs in industry and business. The ex-serviceman of the Korean conflict tended to enrol in courses leading to a profession. What type of education will the post-Korean veteran be interested in?

This question interests Congress because the Senate has approved a bill setting up school benefits for men whose period of military service will fall between 1955 and 1963. The House will pick up the measure during the second session. In the meantime, Congressional committees are assembling additional facts to serve as the basis for the final enactment of "as noteworthy a piece of legislation as the G. I. Bill of Rights of 1944."

Congress is especially impressed with the results of the World War II G. I. Bill. The Senate Labor and Public Welfare Committee pointed to these facts:

"Of the more than 7,800,000 veterans who received training, 2,200,000 attended college; 3,500,000 went to schools below the college level; 1,400,000 took on-the-job training, and 700,000 enrolled in institutional on-farm training.

"GI Bill training has helped raise both the income and educational levels of veterans. The median income of veterans has gone up 51 percent over the past six years, compared with a 10 percent rise for nonveteran males in the same age group."

A decade later, the Korean vet-

eran looked to his G. I. Bill as something more than a ticket to a job in industry or business. Says the Senate Labor and Public Welfare Committee:

"The Korean readjustment training program is predominantly a college program. The percentage of Korean trainees who enrolled in colleges is almost twice as large as the percentage of World War II college trainees. A correspondingly smaller percentage of Korean trainees have trained in business and industrial establishments or on farms, and a much smaller percentage have trained in schools below the college level."

The Senators concluded that Korean veterans are a serious minded group. They have facts to support that conclusion:

A comparison with World War II trainees disclosed that a greater proportion of the Korean trainees have taken courses in scientific fields or other fields which require the most extensive training and knowledge. The scientific field has attracted over a quarter million Korean trainees. Of this group, 161,000 selected engineering and 40,000 selected other physical and natural science objectives, such as chemistry, geology, physics, and biology. The teaching profession has attracted 107,000 Korean trainees. This is a much higher proportion than the World War II program attracted.

As for the post-Korean veteran, it is too early to know what educational pathways he will follow. In considering the third GI Bill in 15 years, Congress is in effect setting up an endowment policy for young men who never fought in a hot war and many of whom have not yet put on a uniform.

A New CCC?—A majority of Senators agree with a majority of school administrators that there is a need for a youth organization patterned after the Civilian Conservation Corps of 1933.

The Senators expressed their judgment in a 47-45 vote approving S 812. This would establish a Youth Conservation Corps. The House may take up this measure during the second session starting next year.

The school administrators voiced their approval in informal reports to the American Association of School Administrators. The AASA headquarters in Washington believes (unofficially) that three out of four school superintendents would approve the corps.

It was Senator Humphrey (D., Minn.) who first proposed the youth organization "as a new structure to mitigate against the shameful waste of human and natural resources." The proposed youth organization would enrol boys between the ages of 16 to 21 and set them to work on projects conserving and developing our natural resources. At the same time, the boys would be provided with "a system of education," including work experience and on-the-job training. Boys would enrol for a period of

six months but could re-enlist. The first year the Youth Conservation Corps would take in not more than 50,000 persons; the second year, 100,000; each year after, not exceeding 150,000.

Justifying his plan, Senator Humphrey said: "The unique character of this proposal is that it combines so beautifully two major public undertakings. The happy fact is that in providing for useful, constructive, healthful work for boys, we are in the same act making possible a fresh start on the desperately needed conservation work on our publicly owned lands, largely postponed since 1940 and the beginning of World War II."

Senator Humphrey added that each juvenile delinquent costs the Nation $25,000. "If we could turn only 10,000 boys each year away from the path that leads to delinquency, the taxpayers of the country could be saved an annual expenditure of $250 million."

The close vote in the Senate shows that there is strong opposition to the plan. Senator Bennett (R., Utah) called it "a deceptive boondoggle." He said it would cost about $450 million a year. He doubted whether the Youth Conservation Corps would be of much use in combating juvenile delinquency or in helping conserve natural resources.

Up, Up, Up.—Some 35,990,000 public-school pupils are sitting in the nation's classrooms this October. This is 1,370,000 more children than were enrolled a year ago and represents the fifteenth consecutive yearly rise in school enrollments.

Is there a leveling off in sight? It does not appear that way to the Bureau of the Census. Its statisticians have looked ahead as far as 1963. They see continued growth of the school-age population at least until that year.

The Bureau's projections show that nearly all states will have more children of school age in 1963 than in 1957—in fact 21 percent more. But some states will have rates of growth well above the national average. Thus, Alaska's school-age population in 1963 will be 81 percent above its 1957 figure; Nevada, 50 percent above; and Arizona, 42 percent above. The 1963 school population of only Arkansas and West Virginia will be slightly below that of 1957.

During the next four years, the number of school-age children will grow by about 1,500,000 a year, the Bureau says. Whether there will be a diminution in the growth after 1963, the Bureau does not predict.

Federal statisticians find it easier to look back than ahead. In summing up what has been happening to the school-age group in this decade, the Bureau reports: "The rate of growth in the school-age population since 1950 has been substantially higher than that of the total population. In fact the school-age group has grown twice as rapidly as the total population." •

• Educational News •

CHANGES IN SUPERINTENDENCIES:

New Castle, Pa.: **Howard S. Stewart,** formerly assistant superintendent, has succeeded **Walter A. Kearney,** now director of the McKeesport campus of Pennsylvania State University.

Janesville, Wis.: **Fred Holt,** formerly superintendent at West Bend, Wis., is successor to **Vernon E. Klontz,** retired.

Kankakee, Ill.: **Walter W. Knecht,** formerly high-school principal at Kankakee, has been named superintendent, succeeding **Anthony Marinaccio,** now superintendent at Davenport, Ia.

Hot Springs, Ark: **Hugh L. Mills,** formerly superintendent at Monticello, has been appointed superintendent.

Ypsilanti, Mich.: **Paul Emerich,** formerly superintendent at Fremont, Mich., has been appointed successor to **Evart W. Ardis,** now director of the bureau of appointments and occupational information, University of Michigan.

Taft, Calif.: **Milton G. Ross** has retired after 37 years' service in the school district.

COLLEGE PRESIDENTS:

Oberlin College, Ohio: **Robert Kenneth Carr,** professor of law at Dartmouth College, Hanover, N.H., has been named successor to **William E. Stevenson,** resigned. Dr. Stevenson has been president since 1946.

TEACHER-TRAINING INSTITUTIONS:

University of Missouri, Columbia: **Howard W. Heding,** formerly of Oklahoma State University, has been named associate professor of education, succeeding **W. W. Carpenter,** retired.

Boston University, Mass.: **Malcolm S. Knowles,** executive director of the Adult Education Association of the U. S. since 1951, has been named associate professor of education and general consultant in adult education.

The American University, Washington, D. C.: **Chalmer A. Gross,** formerly of Southern Illinois University, Carbondale, has been named associate professor of education. **John W. Devor** is now chairman of the department of education at the university, replacing **Samuel Engle Burr,** now director of off-campus and in-service programs.

OTHER CHANGES AND APPOINTMENTS:

Earl Wooster, formerly superintendent of Washoe County Schools, Reno, is now executive secretary of the Nevada State Education Association, succeeding **Chester V. Davis.**

Jack Culbertson, formerly associate professor of education at the University of Oregon, Eugene, is now executive director of the University Council for Educational Administration, succeeding **Daniel R. Davies,** who has returned to Teachers College, Columbia University. The UCEA is now establishing permanent headquarters at Ohio State University, Columbus, financed by a grant of $250,000 from the W. K. Kellogg Foundation.

L. Frazer Banks, retired superintendent, Birmingham, Ala., has been named studio director of the Birmingham Educational TV Association.

Walter M. Lifton, formerly associate professor of education, University of Illinois, Urbana, has been appointed director of guidance publications and services, Science Research Associates, Inc., Chicago, Ill.

William S. Vincent has been named executive officer of the Institute of Administrative Research,

Teachers College, Columbia University, succeeding Paul R. Mort, retired.

RECENT DEATHS:

P. F. Voelker, formerly superintendent of the Michigan Department of Public Instruction and former president of Olivet College and Battle Creek College, at the age of 84.

New Testing Program

A NEW testing program for college-bound high-school seniors has been announced by the University of Iowa.

The new venture, called the American College Testing (ACT) program, will get underway in November with between 200 and 300 participating colleges and universities in 13 states. It is designed to help colleges determine in advance which students are qualified for admission.

The testing program will compete with the long-established but often criticized College Entrance Examination Board (CEEB), New York. These tests are prepared and scored by Educational Testing Service (ETS).

E. F. Lindquist, director of the Iowa Testing Programs, has stated that the new ACT program will be more comprehensive than the college boards, will be cheaper, and "the competition will result in an improvement of the ETS tests."

CEEB now provides the participating colleges with only two scores—mathematics and one reflecting word knowledge and reading ability. ACT, it is announced, will give colleges four scores—English, mathematics, science, and social studies. It will also report the scores to the high school and to the student.

Ted McCarrel is general director of the new ACT program. Tests and administrative services will be provided by Science Research Associates of Chicago.

Report on Russia

REACH and over-reach America" is the leading slogan in Russia, according to the report of the first official U. S. education mission to the Soviet Union.

The report, a 135-page document entitled *Soviet Commitment to Education,* was released in September by the U. S. Office of Education. It covers a month tour, from May 8 to June 6, 1958, by an 11-man team, headed by Lawrence G. Derthick, U. S. Commissioner of Education.

The educators were impressed, the report states, by the national and personal sacrifices that the Russian people were willing to make for the sake of better schooling. The educators were convinced that the Russians are making those sacrifices because they consider the schools as essential in their race for world supremacy.

Copies of the report are available for 70c from the U. S. Government Printing Office.

Education Week

PRAISE and Appraise Your Schools" will be the theme of the 1959

American Education Week, November 8-14.

The daily topics for the week will be: "The Child: What Does Education Mean to Him?"; "The Parents: How Can They Work for Better Schools?"; "The Teacher: What Is a Teacher?"; "The People Next Door: Who Are They?"; "The Schoolboard Member: What Are His Responsibilities?"; "The Adult Citizen: How Can the Schools Serve Them?"; and "The Voter: How Does He Make His Decisions on Education?"

National sponsors of the week are the NEA, American Legion, U. S. Office of Education, and National Congress of Parents and Teachers. Suggestions for observance of the week are available from the NEA, 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington 6, D.C.

More Ford Grants

THE Ford Foundation announced this summer a second round of grants, totalling $6,317,000, aimed at what it has termed a "breakthrough in teacher education." These grants, together with a group of grants totalling $9,000,000 made in April, constitute a national program of teacher training in many different kinds of institutions, according to Henry T. Heald, president of the Foundation.

The institutions who will receive aid from the second round of grants are: Bucknell University, $105,000; Central Michigan University, $750,000; Cornell University, $808,550; Johns Hopkins University, $841,650; Michigan State University, $585,000; New York University, $825,000; University of North Carolina, $326,500; University of Southern California, $660,000; Vanderbilt University, $615,300; and Wayne State University, $800,000.

DATES OF THE MONTH:

Oct. 4-7, National Conference on School Transportation, Washington, D.C.

Oct. 6-9, National Council on Schoolhouse Construction, Kansas City, Mo.

Oct. 11-15, Association of School Business Officials of the U. S. and Canada, Miami Beach, Fla.

Oct. 23-28, NEA Department of Rural Education and County and Rural Area Superintendents, Seattle, Wash.

DATES OF THE COMING MONTHS:

Nov. 1-2, Association of Urban Universities, Buffalo, N. Y.

Nov. 3-5, National Association of Public School Adult Educators, Buffalo, N. Y.

Nov. 8-14, American Education Week.

Nov. 25-28, National Council for the Social Studies, Kansas City.

Nov. 29-Dec. 2, National Society for Crippled Children and Adults, Chicago, Ill.

Dec. 7-11, American Vocational Association, Chicago, Ill.

Feb. 11-13, American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, Chicago, Ill.

Feb. 13-17, American Association of School Administrators, Atlantic City, N. J.

Feb. 27-Mar. 2, National Association of Secondary-School Principals, Portland, Ore.

Feb. 29-Mar. 3, NEA Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, Cincinnati, Ohio.

Dynamics of Curriculum Improvement. Philo T. Pritzkau. Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959. Pp. xx + 459. $5.95.

"The real test of the effectiveness of the curriculum is the constructive difference it makes at the level of teacher-pupil interaction," says Dr. Pritzkau in the preface to his book. In line with this concept, Dr. Pritzkau uses as the guiding principle for his discussion the idea that curriculum improvement is equated with teaching.

The volume clarifies questions and problems dealing with fear, anger, conformity, peer relationships, and directional meanings. It then shows how individual security lies in learning to live with tensions.

The author is director of the Curriculum Center at the University of Connecticut.

Learning and the Teacher. Washington, D. C.: Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, 1959. Pp. x + 222. $3.75.

This, the 1959 Yearbook of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development, emphasizes the teacher's task in applying what is now known about learning and in extending insights about learners in action.

Twenty-three prominent educators were members of the committee which prepared this volume. Cochairmen of the group were David H. Russell of the University of California, Berkeley, and Sybil K. Richardson of the San Fernando Valley State College, California.

Chapters in the book were prepared by various members of the committee. Two bibliographies, one on child development and learning, the other on learning in classroom situations, are included in the appendixes.

Developing Language Skills in the Elementary School. Harry A. Greene and Walter T. Petty. Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1959. Pp. xiv + 513. $6.00.

Helping children to speak, write, listen, and develop their creative expressiveness through language is the subject of this book.

Written in a nontechnical style, the book covers such subjects as: the educational philosophy behind the language program; the psychology of learning as applied to language expression; theoretical and practical approaches to the curriculum; the place of grammar and usage in the language program; language activities and methods, spelling, and vocabulary development; and the increasingly important area of listening.

Practical teaching methods and techniques and tested instructional aids are presented to help the teacher.

Mental Health and Human Relations in Education. Louis Kaplan. New York: Harper & Brothers, 1959. Pp. xiv + 476. $5.00.

This book presents a philosophy of human relations for educators and a practical guide for improving the mental health aspects of education.

The text is divided into four parts. The first part deals with the problem of mental disorder and

maladjustment in the U. S. and shows how it reaches into the school. Part II discusses the environmental influences on the development of the personality. Part III describes the psychological forces of growth and the symptoms of behavior deviation in children. The final section makes practical application of these principles in the school setting.

The appendix contains an extensive listing of audio-visual aids for instructors.

The author is currently administrator of adult education programs and lecturer in education at the University of Southern California.

The Integrated Classroom. H. Harry Giles. New York: Basic Books, Inc., 1959. Pp. xii + 338. $5.00.

The tensions and conflicts created by America's racial, religious, and cultural differences and the ways they can be resolved is the theme of this book.

The author, who is professor of education at New York University and founder of the Center for Human Relations Study, offers specific answers to the questions most often raised in integrating the classroom.

He includes in this book information he has obtained from the men, women, and children who have themselves been involved in actual integration of our classrooms. Teachers, principals, and superintendents from communities in 13 states are included in Dr. Giles's survey of day-to-day situations.

OTHER MATERIALS RECEIVED:

ELEMENTARY

Off into Space! Science for Young Space Travelers. Margaret O. Hyde. New York: Whittlesey House, McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1959. Pp. 64. $2.50. Designed for 8-12 year olds.

Peter Tschaikowsky and the Nutcracker Ballet. Opal Wheeler. New York: E. P. Dutton & Company, Inc., 1959. Pp. 96. $3.50. Also includes simple piano arrangements for six of Tschaikowsky's most familiar compositions.

Father to the Child. Everett S. Ostrovsky. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1959. Pp. xviii + 173. $3.75. Case studies of the experiences of a male teacher with young children.

Your Friends in Japan; A Story about the Life of Some Children in a Village in Japan. A 16-page booklet available from the World Confederation of Organizations of the Teaching Profession, 1227 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington 6, D. C. $.25.

About Yourself. W. W. Bauer, et al. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1959. Pp. 288. Guidebook for Teachers, pp. 192. Book Five of the Basic Health and Safety Program.

SECONDARY

The Call of the Wild. Jack London. Edited by Mary Yost Sandrus. Chicago: Scott, Foresman and Company, 1959. Pp. 189. $2.20. One of the Easy Reading Books series for retarded readers in grades 7 to 12.

How to Study Science. Louis Haber and Lawrence Samuels. New York: College Entrance Publications, 1959. Pp. 81. $1.00.

The Growth of America. Rebekah R. Liebman and Gertrude A. Young. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959. Pp. ix + 469. $4.68.

The Questions Girls Ask. Marjorie Vetter and Laura Vitray. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1959. Pp. 156. $2.95.

Youth and the Future. Charles H. Carver, Harold G. Sliker, and Eliz-

abeth J. Herbert. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959. Pp. xxxi + 528. $4.64. One of the Literature in Life series, 10th grade.

Science for the Academically Talented Student in the Secondary School. A 63-page booklet available from the National Education Association, 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington 6, D. C. $.60. Discounts in quantity.

College

How to Pass Annapolis Entrance Exams. New York: Arco Publishing Company, Inc., 1959. Pp. 216. $3.50.

The Verdict of the Scoreboard. Ade Christenson. New York: The American Press, 1959. Pp. 190. $3.00. A study of the values and practices underlying college athletics today.

College and University Trusteeship. Morton A. Rauh. Yellow Springs, Ohio: The Antioch Press, 1959. Pp. 112. $1.00.

General

The Handbook of Private Schools. (40th Edition). Boston: Porter Sargent, 1959. Pp. 1344. $10.00.

Our Educational Dilemma; Peace Education and Teacher Salaries. Joseph H. Garber. New York: Exposition Press, 1959. Pp. 88. $2.75.

Dictionary of Education. (Second Edition.) Edited by Carter V. Good. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1959. Pp. xxvii + 676. $9.75. A revision of the 1945 edition, prepared under the auspices of Phi Delta Kappa.

A History of Education; A Social Interpretation. (Second Edition.) James Mulhern. New York: The Ronald Press Company, 1959. Pp. vii + 754. $7.50.

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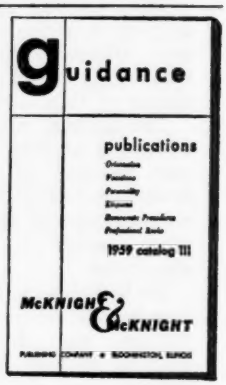

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471 pp. **Pub. 1959** **Text price $5.75**

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459 pp. **Pub. 1959** **Text price $5.95**

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THE ROLE OF THE TEACHER IN GUIDANCE

by EDGAR G. JOHNSTON, MILDRED PETERS, and WILLIAM EVRAIFF, all of Wayne State University

THIS NEW BOOK IS WRITTEN FOR TEACHERS WITH THE TEACHER'S point of view on the question of the school's guidance program. It introduces, for example, these aspects of the guidance function: understanding the needs of children, recognition of recent findings in child development, ways of studying individual children, the dynamics of group interaction, the relationship of guidance and curriculum, cooperation with parents in encouraging pupil adjustment, and the team concept involving the total school staff in a coordinated guidance program.

276 pp. **Pub. 1959** **Text price $4.95**

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Good Books for Children. Compiled by Mary K. Eakin. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1959. Pp. xiv + 274. $5.95. A selection of outstanding children's books published 1948-57.

How to Get the Best Education for Your Child. Benjamin and Lillian Fine. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1959. Pp. 251. $3.95.

Action Patterns in School Desegregation; A Guidebook. Herbert Wey and John Corey. Bloomington, Ind.: Phi Delta Kappa, Inc., 1959. Pp. xxi + 276. Copies free to school superintendents. Others, $1.50.

AUDIO-VISUALS

An Introduction to Rubber. A 53-frame filmstrip prepared for use in social-studies and science classes in grades 5-9. Available free from Public Relations Department, U. S. Rubber Company, 1230 Avenue of the Americas, New York 20, N. Y.

Man and the Moon. A 20-minute 16mm color film. For information on long-term lease plan write Educational Film Division, Walt Disney Productions, Burbank, Calif.

Opa Scope. A portable opaque projector capable of projecting full-color images of either flat or three dimensional material. For more information write Projection Optics Company, Inc., 271 Eleventh Ave., East Orange, N. J.

Russian for Children. Two 10" LP records and illustrated booklet to teach Russian, the latest in the Hear . . Repeat . . Speak Language Courses available from Ottenheimer Publisher, 4805 Nelson Ave., Baltimore, Md. $4.95.

Plan for Learning. A 27-minute, 16mm color film showing how one community designed and built the school it needed. Produced with the cooperation of the AASA and the American Institute of Architects. Available from U. S. Steel Corporation, Film Distribution Center, 525 William Penn Place, Pittsburgh 30, Pa.

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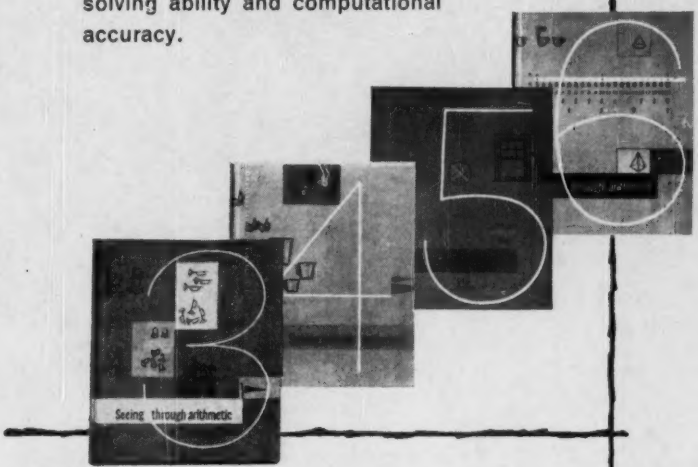

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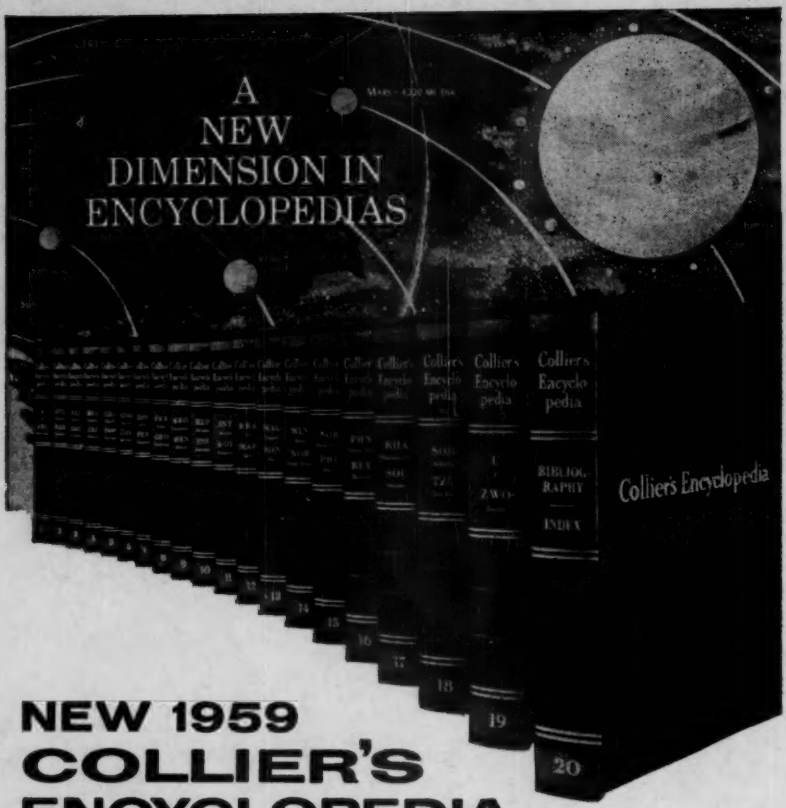

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